Chapter 3

Hours of Work

Jobs are important in the lives of most American adults. Just how important appears to be in dispute. Some researchers claim, for example, that Americans are too busy and overworked. Juliet Schor states in *The Overworked American (1991)*, "in the last twenty years the amount of time Americans have spent at their jobs has risen steadily." Although the study was criticized by some in the academic community for lack of data replicability (Hedges, 1992; Stafford, 1992; and Kniesner, 1993), it was well-received by the popular press (Kuttner, 1992 and Segal, 1992). More recently, Arlie Hochschild (1997) argued in *The Time Bind: When Work Becomes Home and Home Becomes Work*, that more people are opting to work long hours on the job to avoid responsibilities at home. The notion that Americans are working more has become so ingrained in the media that a recent article in *Training Magazine* states "It's become almost banal to comment on how busy and overworked people are today."[1]

Subsequent empirical research, however, has been much less definitive. Using data from decennial censuses and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' (BLS) Current Population Surveys (CPS)[2], Coleman and Pencavel (1993a, 1993b) found little change in the average number of hours men worked between 1940 and 1988. They also found a slight decrease in the number of hours worked by less-educated women and a slight increase in hours worked by well-educated women. Rones, Ilg, and Gardner (1997), using CPS data, also found little change in the average hours worked each week over the period 1976-93 but they did find a slight increase in the percent of persons working long workweeks. Researchers using data on annual hours worked from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics found a small upward trend in annual work hours from 1967-89 for workers age 25 to 54 years (Bluestone and Rose, 1998). In contrast, researchers using data from time-use surveys found a general decline in the time people spend doing paid work over the past three decades (Robinson and Bostrom, 1994). Data from the BLS Current Employment Statistics Survey (CES) also show a decline in the average length of the workweek over time.

Empirical evidence generally does not support rapid growth in the hours that Americans are spending on their jobs. Why then do more people report feeling rushed and under time-pressure? (Robinson and Godbey, 1997) And why do books, such as Schor's and Hochschild's, claiming that Americans are overworked and in a "time-bind" continue to make the best seller's list?

Several possibilities exist for the apparent contradiction between the empirical evidence and

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the popular perception. One possibility is that some people are working more while others are working less so that trends in average hours have been relatively constant. If this is the case, there may be a portion of the population that is indeed "overworked." Laura Leete and Juliet Schor (1994) found a 7.7-percent increase in annual hours worked among the "fully employed" but only a 3-percent increase for the labor force as a whole.[3] Another possibility is that American workers, on average, are not spending significantly more time at work but that the increase in labor force participation by women and the prevalence of both parents working has placed more constraints on nonwork time, resulting in more people feeling stressed or pressed for time.

Chapter organization

In this chapter, we examine work time using data from BLS surveys and supplementary sources. For the economy as a whole, we review the long-term trends in hours at work and hours paid for by the employer. We then examine the trends among various subgroups of the population. Because the labor force participation patterns of various population groups can change over time, the total working hours for members of these groups depend on both how many people are working and how many hours they work. For example, if a group (such as women) increases its labor force participation, the share of time devoted to work for the group as a whole increases, even if each employed person's workweek does not change. Examining trends in average hours at work among all working-age individuals in the population (rather than just those employed) is one way of measuring work time to capture trends in participation and trends in work hours for those working.

Over the past three decades, there have been some important changes in the structure of families and labor force participation patterns that have had profound effects on the way American families lead their daily lives. Undoubtedly, the most important changes—and the ones that have stirred the most debate—have been the increase in the number of families maintained by a single female and the very rapid increase in the proportion of women in the labor force.[4] This chapter also looks at the trends in working hours among individuals in various types of families and among individuals with and without children. In addition, we examine the trends in combined hours of work among married-couple families, as well as the correlation in the work hours of husbands and wives.

In the last section of the chapter, we shift the focus towards employers, starting with an examination of the prevalence of work arrangements that are aimed at helping workers handle the demands of both work and family. We then turn to a discussion of time off provided by employers and the relationship between the hours employees work and hours of leave (for vacation, sickness, or holidays) that are paid for by the employer. This is followed by a discussion of the types of paid time off benefits available to workers and the amounts of time off they receive.

Time Spent at Work

Overall trends in hours worked

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has a number of data series related to hours worked. The Current Employment Statistics (CES) Survey provides data on the average paid hours for production workers in goods-producing industries and nonsupervisory workers in service-producing industries. This information is collected from employers and is based on payroll records. The survey is limited to the private, nonagricultural sector. The CPS, a monthly household survey, provides data on several different concepts of hours worked. Each month, all survey respondents are asked about the total hours worked at all jobs during the survey reference week; a quarter of the sample respondents each month are asked about the usual hours worked per week on the primary job; and, each year in a supplement to the CPS conducted in March, all survey respondents are asked about the usual hours worked per week during the last year. Chart 3-1 shows the trend in each of these series from 1960 to 1998. Note that because some labor force participants are multiple jobholders, the trend line for the quarter sample series lies below the other CPS measures of hours worked because it measures only hours worked on the worker's main job. Because the CPS was re-designed in 1994, data after this point are not strictly comparable to the earlier data. (The March supplement did not undergo a major revision.) However, the overall averages in the monthly CPS and the quarter sample do not appear to be much affected. (See box.)

CES weekly hours indicate a sharp downward trend from about 1966 to 1998.[5] Between those years, average weekly hours paid to production or nonsupervisory workers fell from 38.6 to 34.6 hours, a reduction of 10.4 percent. In contrast, weekly hours from the monthly CPS declined by

Changes in the Current Population Survey

Current Population Survey (CPS) data for January 1994 and forward are not strictly comparable with data for earlier years because of the introduction of a major redesign of the questionnaire and collection methodology. Among the questionnaire changes were alterations intended to identify all persons who worked for pay during the reference week and to help respondents recall the exact number of hours they worked during the week.

The annual averages on weekly hours worked were little changed from 1993 to 1994, declining from 39.3 to 39.1. This decline is likely because the redesigned survey makes extra efforts to include marginal workers who, by definition, have low weekly hours. Although the redesign did not have a notable impact on the overall average, a comparison of pre- and post-1994 data suggests that the implicit recall strategy associated with the new questionnaire does provide more accurate data on actual hours. For instance, the proportion of persons who reported working exactly 40 hours per week—a common, almost reflex, response—declined substantially between 1993 and 1994. In fact, this decrease was greater than the cumulative effect of the long-term downward trend between 1973 and 1993. In addition, during the 1973-93 period, the share of survey respondents reporting they worked between 35 and 39 hours or 41 and 48 hours decreased. In 1994, with the revised questions, this trend was reversed, indicating that respondents are now giving different, and apparently more precise, answers to the questions on hours actually worked.

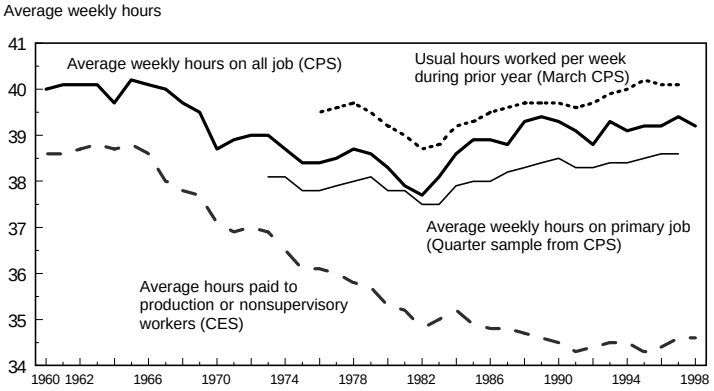
2 percent from 40.0 to 39.2 hours. The other two CPS series on usual weekly hours are similarly flat. (Hours from the CPS March supplement rose by 1.5 percent between 1976 and 1997, and the quarter sample hours rose from 38.1 to 38.6 hours between 1973 and 1997.)

Weekly hours fell in both the CES and CPS during the sixties and seventies (more steeply in the CES than the CPS). However, the trends diverge in the mid-eighties, with hours increasing slightly in the CPS series and continuing to fall in the CES, although less sharply than in the previous period.

Given that the CES captures only the hours paid to production or nonsupervisory workers, whereas the CPS refers to all nonagricultural workers, the levels of the two series can differ. However, what is behind the divergence in the trends is not known. One possible explanation is that the share of employment in production and nonsupervisory positions fell enough that the trends in hours among these workers had a decreasing impact on the overall average, and that hours among workers not covered in the CES rose. Although the production and nonsupervisory share of employment has fallen over the entire period, it has been a fairly constant 81 percent of employment since 1980.[6] In addition, Abraham, Spletzer, and Stewart (1998) attempted to identify non-CES individuals in the CPS to see if their hours had risen relative to the hours of workers covered by the CES. They found that between 1973 and 1993, the average weekly hours of workers in the CPS who would potentially be covered in the CES declined by 0.7 hour, while the weekly hours of potentially exempt workers rose by 0.9 hour. Despite the qualitative differences between these two groups of workers, they conclude that the differences are not sufficiently large to account for the divergence of trends between the two surveys.

Another source of difference between the CES and CPS is that the former reflects employers' reports on the hours they paid their employees and the latter captures the reports by workers on the hours that they actually worked. Even assuming no measurement error in either series, the two will differ if workers are paid for a set number of hours but tend to work more hours. Mellow and Sider (1983) examined data on hours reported by individuals and employers. They found that for managers and professionals, hours reported by workers exceed those reported by employers by nearly 11 percent. This finding might be the key to understanding the extent of the gap between CES hours and CPS hours, but it does not explain why the trends of the two measures have diverged. One possible explanation is that workers have been receiving fewer hours of paid leave. However, as will be discussed later, a BLS survey of hours worked (the Hours at Work Survey) indicates there has been no change in the relationship between paid leave and hours worked for production or nonsupervisory workers since 1981.

Chart 3-1. **Trends in average hours per week as measured by different data series, 1960-98 annual averages**



SOURCE: Current Employment Statistics Survey and Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Another possibility for the trend divergence is that workers are over-reporting the hours that they work in the CPS. Research using time-use diaries that require respondents to report the start and stop times of all their activities during a 24-hour period provide some evidence for this hypothesis. Hamermesh (1990) and Robinson and Bostrom (1994) both compared synthetic workweeks, constructed from time-use diaries, to the weekly hours reported in CPS-style questions. They find that people tended to overestimate their hours worked, particularly those who work longer workweeks, and that the overestimate increased over time. However, Jacobs (1998), using data from the 1992 National Survey of the Changing Workforce, finds that CPS-style measures of the workweek correlate well with a new work time measure derived from questions that ask for work departure and return times (less commuting time). Jacobs also argues that the discrepancy between the time-use diaries and CPS estimates of the length of the workweek may be a statistical artifact resulting from random measurement error in both series.

If, in fact, overreporting has worsened over time in the CPS, the question remains as to why. One possibility is that workers now have more flexibility in their hours, thus making it harder for them to remember the exact number of hours that they work in a week.[7] Increased flexibility may also result in workers having more opportunities to run errands or conduct personal business during work hours. These hours would be excluded from estimates of work time captured in time-use diaries but may get included by respondents as work time in the CPS.

Although there are measurement error problems associated with the CPS questions on hours worked, these data have a number of advantages. First, the CPS contains a wealth of information on the demographic characteristics of workers as well as their family situation. This allows trends to be studied separately for various subgroups of interest. Second, because the same question pertaining to weekly hours worked has been asked in the CPS for many years, long-term trends can be examined.[8] Therefore, for the remainder of this chapter we primarily focus on the hours at work obtained from the monthly CPS question, "How many hours did you work last week at all jobs?"[9]

The trends in average weekly work hours discussed to this point pertain only to employed individuals. If participation rates have changed over this period, these trends may not truly reflect whether or not we as a society are working more. For example, if workers start retiring earlier, then the total amount of time spent working by society as a whole will decline. However, this will not be reflected in the trends of average weekly work hours of employed individuals. Charts 3-2 and 3-3 show trends since 1967 in the average number of hours worked per week using annual average

data from the monthly CPS. Chart 3-2 shows the trends in average weekly hours worked for all persons age 16 or older in the civilian nonagricultural population. Nonworkers, therefore, are included when computing this average, even though their hours are zero. Chart 3-3 shows the trends in average weekly hours worked for persons age 16 or older in nonagricultural industries (nonworkers are excluded from this average). For all persons age 16 years and older, the average weekly work hours rose from 21.2 to 23.8 hours between 1967 and 1998. This upward trend reflects an increase in overall participation (primarily among women) rather than an increase in the number of hours worked per week as seen in chart 3-3. Between 1967 and 1998, the average workweek for those at work fell from 40.0 to 39.2 hours. The increase in the female labor force participation rate is likely to have exerted downward pressure on the average hours among those at work because women tend to work fewer hours than their male counterparts.

Trends in hours worked by demographic group

As has already been discussed, data from the CPS show that over the last three decades, there has been little change in overall average weekly hours for nonagricultural workers. In this section, we examine the trends for various subgroups of workers to see if their trends differ from the overall average. Using selected annual averages from the monthly CPS during the 1976-98 period, we examine trends in weekly hours worked for men, women, and various age groups.[10] We then examine the trends by education using data from the CPS March supplement.[11]

Sex. Chart 3-4 shows the trends in weekly hours for the entire civilian nonagricultural population age 16 years or older; and chart 3-5 shows the trends for their counterparts who are working. For men, the trends in both series are relatively flat, but show some fluctuation with the business cycle as represented by the unemployment rate. For all women, working or not, average weekly hours have steadily risen over the period, from 13.6 hours per week in 1976 to 19.3 in 1998 (an increase of nearly 42 percent). This has been primarily the result of increased participation; weekly hours for those at work only increased by 5 percent over the same period. (See chart 3-5.)

Charts 3-6 and 3-7 show the proportion of workers age 25 to 54 who reported working less than 40 hours per week, exactly 40 hours, and more than 40 hours. The proportion of both male and female workers who reported working, on average, more than 40 hours per week has been increasing since the early eighties. From 1983 to 1993, the proportion rose from 32.4 percent to 38.4 percent for men and from 14.1 to 19.9 percent for women. The same trend also is evident among those who worked 60 or more hours. Among men for instance, the proportion employed in nonagricultural industries who were at work 60 or more hours a week increased from 9.4 percent in 1979 to about 11.4 percent in 1989, and 11.9 percent in 1998. The percent of women who reported working 60 or more hours a week almost doubled over the same period, from 2.4 percent in 1979 to 4.4 percent in 1998. (See table 3-1.)

Age. Charts 3-8 through 3-11 show the average weekly hours among all civilian men and women age 16 to 19 and 65 and older. Average weekly hours for both men and women age 16 to 19 showed a slight downward trend. By comparison, the trends for those 65 and over were relatively flat.

Charts 3–12 through 3-15 show similar trends in hours for three age groups; 20 to 24, 25 to 44, and 45 to 64 years. Again, the hours of younger workers (those age 20 to 24) seem to be more sensitive than those of older workers to movements in the business cycle. Weekly hours worked for these younger workers have declined slightly since 1976. This is likely due to the increase in college enrollment for this age group.[12] Charts 3-14 and 3-15 also show that women age 25 to 44 and 45 to 64 are working more today than in 1976, with corresponding increases in their labor force participation rate and average weekly hours.

Perhaps surprisingly, given the trend towards earlier retirement among men, there has not been a substantial decline in average weekly hours worked among males age 45 to 64 during the 1976-98 period.[13] Although the trend for average weekly hours has been relatively flat for male workers age 25 to 54, there has been an increase in the proportion working extended workweeks.[14] (See table 3-1.) For example, the proportion of men who worked 41 or more hours a week increased from 39.9 to 44.9 percent between 1979 and 1998. For women in the same age group, the proportion increased from 15.1 to 24.2 percent over the same period. (Although the changes in the questionnaire may have had some effect on these increases, much of the gains took place among people who worked 49 or more hours a

week.) The evidence also shows that workers age 55 and over continue to participate in extended workweeks, but to a lesser extent. Overall, 23.3 percent of these older workers worked 41 or more hours a week in 1979, compared with 27.1 percent in 1998.

In contrast, there was practically no change in the proportion of young workers age 16 to 24 employed 41 or more hours a week. There was, however, a marked rise (from 35.2 percent in 1979 to 46.9 percent in 1998) in the proportion who worked part-time (1 to 34 hours a week). Again, this increase in part-time work among 16 to 24-year-olds partly reflects changes in school enrollment.

Students. Using data from the CPS October supplements, we can directly examine the labor force participation rates and weekly hours worked for students age 16 to 24 enrolled full time in either high school or college. Charts 3-16 and 3-17 show the trends in both participation rates and weekly hours between 1980 and 1997 for high school students and charts 3-18 and 3-19 show comparable trends for college students.

Labor force participation rates for high school students have changed very little over the past several decades. Between October 1980 and October 1997, the participation rate for high school students age 16 to 24 ranged from a high of 44.2 percent in October 1989 to a low of 36.7 percent in October 1983. As can be seen in chart 3-16, the peaks and troughs of the high school students' labor force participation rates appear to be affected by the business cycle as represented by the unemployment rate. Both the participation rates and the trends in the rates were similar for male and female students.

Among high school students, the trend in median weekly hours worked was virtually flat over the period, with the sole exception of a spike for men in 1988. Overall, their median weekly hours worked at all jobs ranged from a low of 14.9 in October 1982 (during a period of very high unemployment) to a high of 16.0 in October 1995. It has remained at about that level since.

In contrast to high school students, participation rates for full-time undergraduate college students have risen. (See chart 3-18.) In October 1980, their participation rate was 44.6 percent. By October 1991, it had reached 52.6 percent. Since then, it has fluctuated in the low 50-percent range without exhibiting any definite trend up or down. The slowdown in the early-1990s occurred largely among men. In contrast, the women's rate continued to increase, reaching 55.4 percent in October 1997 (compared with 47.5 percent for men). This increase in labor force participation rates might be related to the rapid rise in college tuition costs.

The median weekly hours at work trend for full-time undergraduate college students is unclear. (See chart 3-19.) Through the early-1990s, median hours worked for these students trended up, peaking at 19.8 hours in October 1992. Since then, however, they have been at or below that figure and the changes in the median appear to have no particular trend. Median weekly hours at work for female full-time college undergraduates rose during the 1980s, then leveled off for a number of years before edging down during the mid-1990s. (See chart 3-19.)

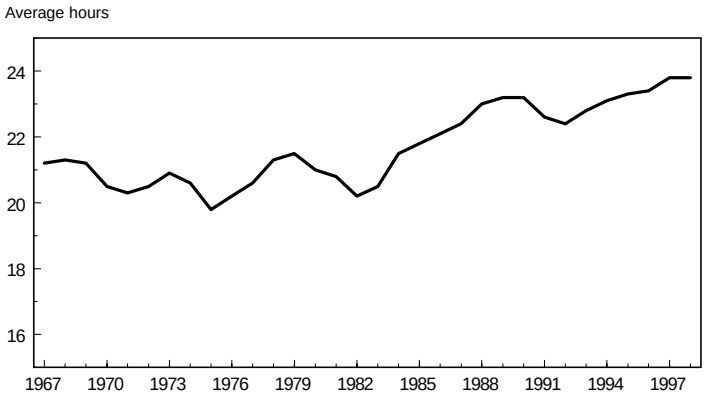
In conclusion, students (with the possible exception of college students) do not appear to be working more than they used to. In fact, there has been little change over the past two decades in the relative size of the student labor force, and the number of hours worked.

Education. So far, we have found no large increases in the average weekly hours worked among those employed (although women as a group are clearly working more now than in the past). The focus now shifts to weekly hours by education to further investigate whether there are some groups for which hours worked have increased. Table 3-2 shows the average weekly hours worked for the total civilian population age 25 to 54 and for civilian workers of the same age by educational attainment.[15]

Average weekly hours worked for the male population fell for all education levels. The largest decline was among men with less than a high school diploma. These declines for men appear to be the result of a dropoff in employment rates because the trends in weekly hours among male workers have been relatively flat within all education groups. For women in the overall population, average weekly hours worked have increased at all education levels; women with the least education show the smallest increase. The trends for women primarily reflect increases in participation, but weekly hours worked also increased, most notably for women with at least some college.

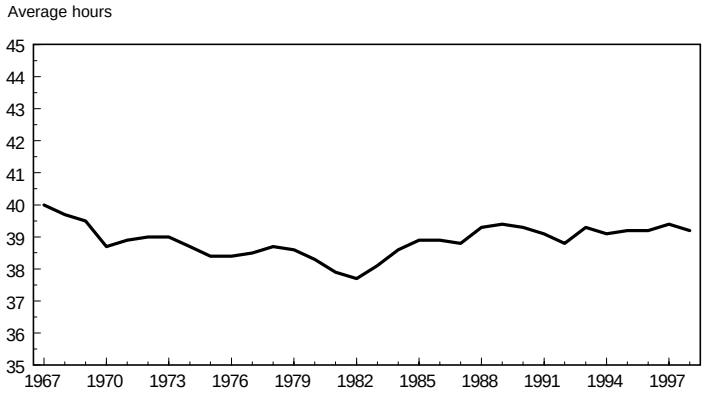
For both men and women, weekly hours in the general population tend to increase with education levels. This reflects the fact that both employment rates and weekly hours worked among the employed are positively related to education.

Chart 3-2. **Average weekly hours at work for the civilian nonagricultural population, 16 years and over, 1967-98 annual averages**



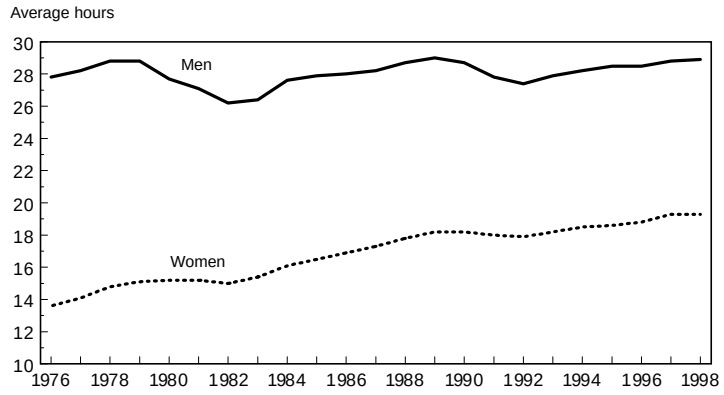
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-3. **Average weekly hours at work for employees in civilian nonagricultural industries, 16 years and over, 1967-98 annual averages**



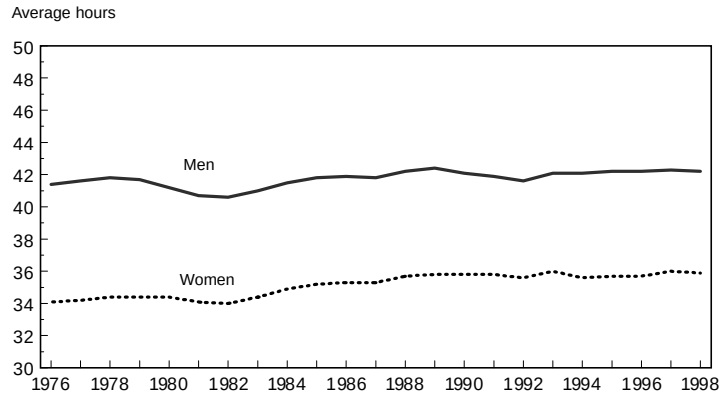
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-4. **Average weekly hours at work for the civilian nonagricultural population, age 16 years and over, 1976-98 annual averages**



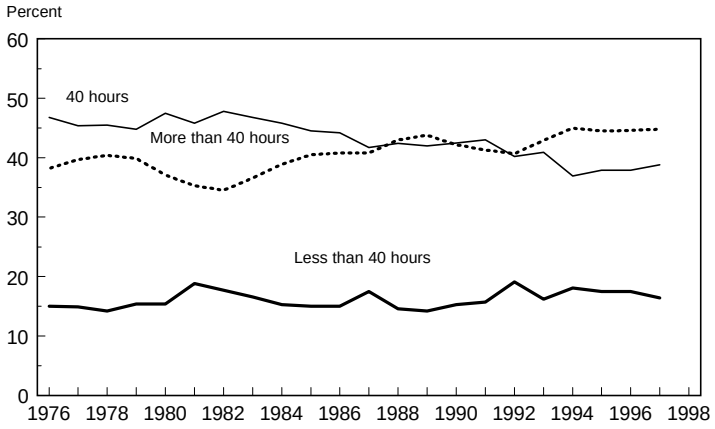
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-5. **Average weekly hour at work for employees in civilian nonagricultural industries, age 16 years and over, 1976-98 annual averages**



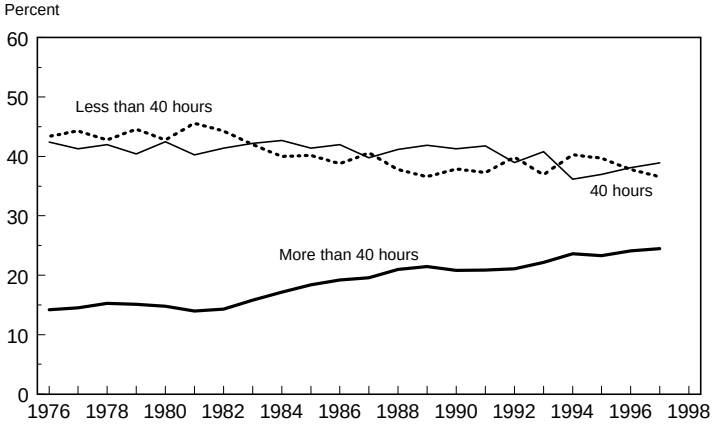
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-6. **Percent of male nonagricultural wage and salary workers, age 25-54 years by weekly hours at work, 1976-97 annual averages**



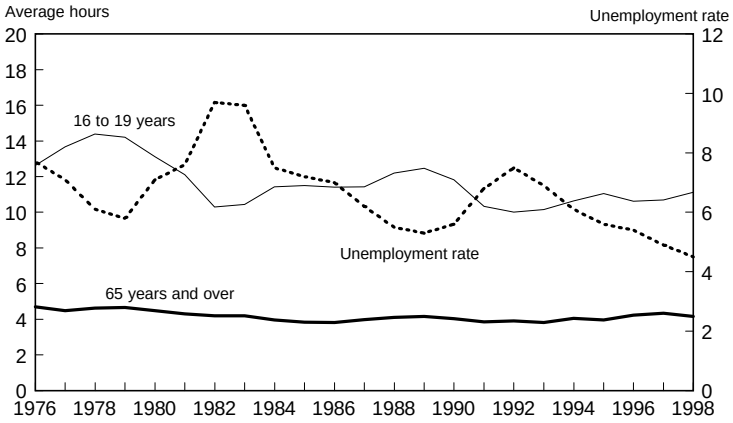
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-7. **Percent of female nonagricultural wage and salary workers, age 25-54 years by weekly hours at work, 1976-97 annual averages**



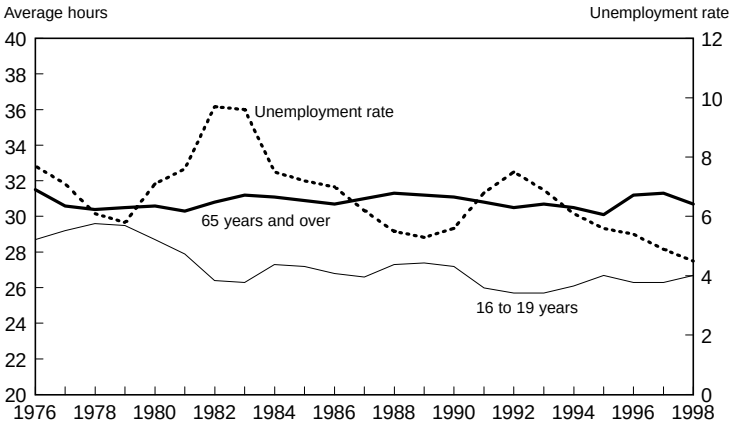
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-8. **Average weekly hours at work for men age 16 to 19 and 65 years and over, civilian nonagricultural population, and total unemployment rate, 1976-98 annual averages**



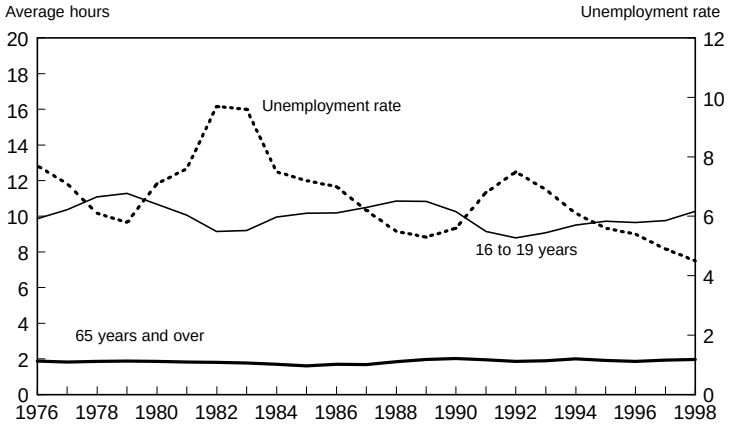
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-9. **Average weekly hoursat work for men age 16 to 19 and 65 years and over in the nonagricultural industries and total unemployment rate, 1976-98 annual averages**



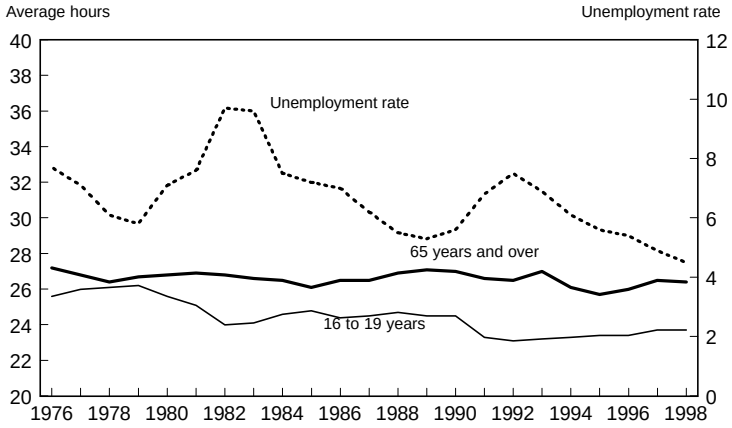
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-10. **Average weekly hours at work for women age 16 to 19 and 65 years and over in civilian nonagricultural population and total unemployment rate, 1876-98 annual averages**



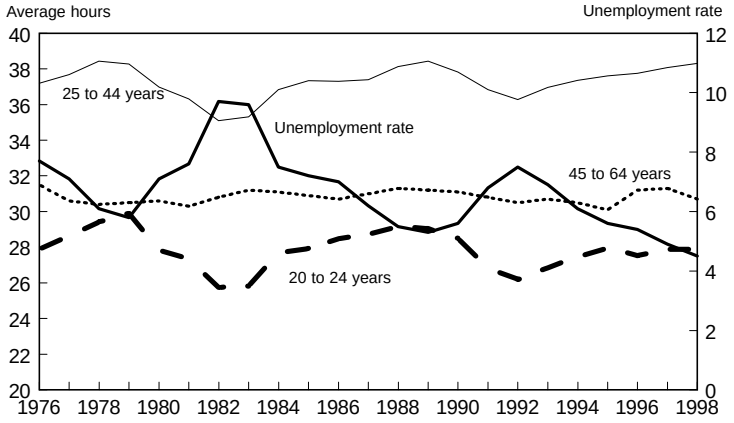
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-11. **Average weekly hours at work for women age 16 to 19 and 65 years and over in nonagricultural industries and total unemployment rate, 1976-98 annual averages**



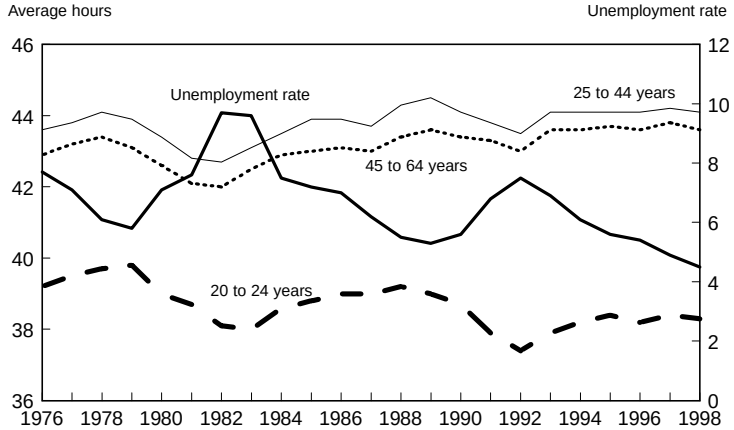
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-12. **Average weekly hours at work for men in civilian nonagriculatural population by selected age groups and total unemployment rate, 1976-98**



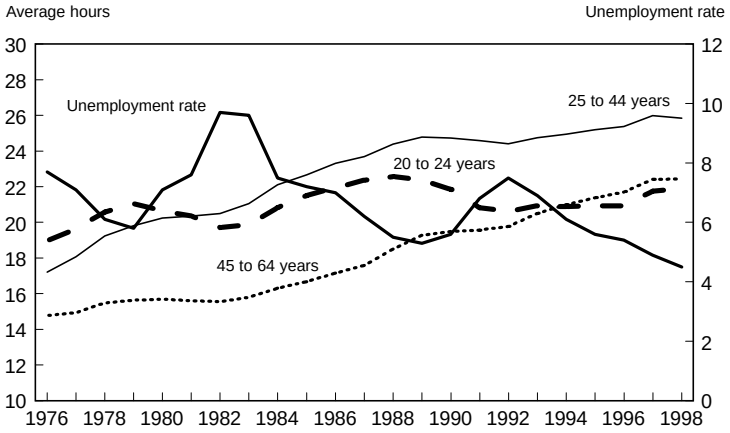
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-13. **Average weekly hours at work for men employed in nonagricultural industries by selected age groups and total unemployment rate, 1976-98**



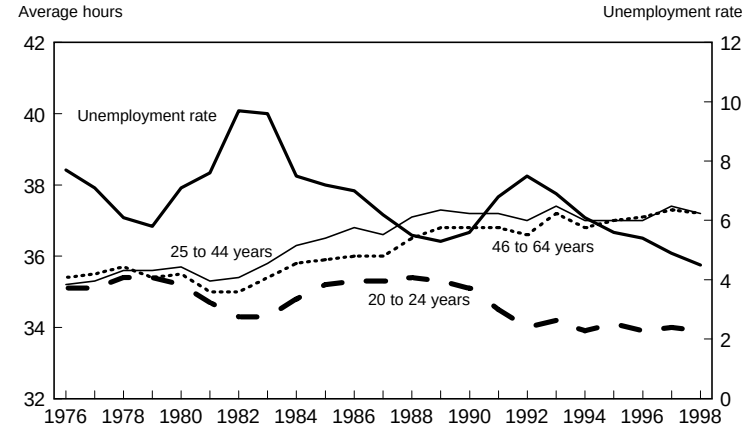
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-14. **Average weekly hours at work for women in civilian nonagricultural population by selected age groups and total unemployment rate, 1976-98 annual averages**



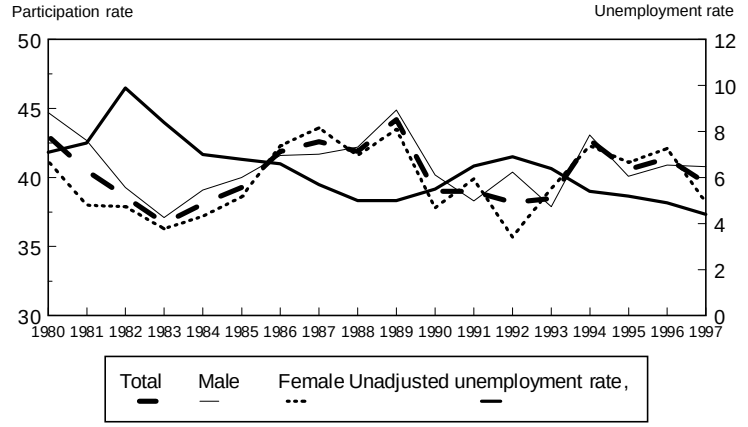
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-15. **Average weekly work hours at work for women employed in nonagricultural industries by selected age groups and total unemployment rate, 1976-98 annual averages**



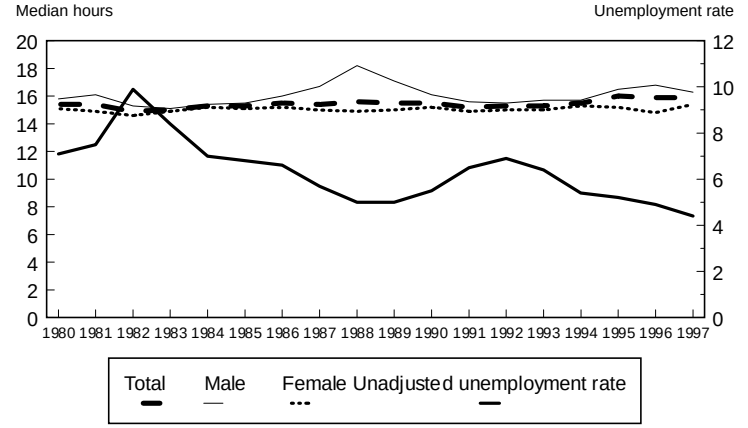
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-16. **Labor force participation rates for full-time high school students ages 16-24 years by sex and total unemployment rate, October 1980-97**



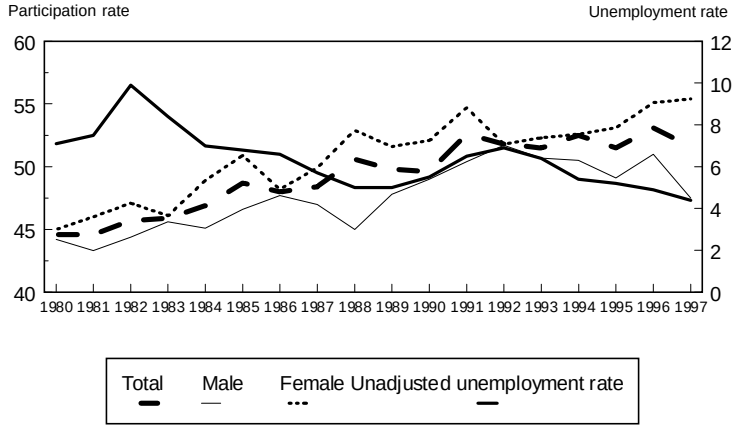
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-17. **Median weekly hours at work for employed full-time high school students ages 16-24 years by sex and total unemployment rate, October 1980-98**



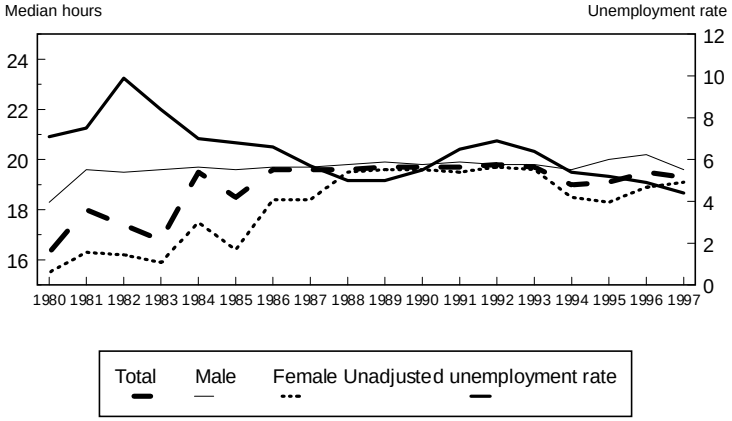
SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-18. **Labor force participation among full-time college students, age 16-24 years by sex and total unemployment rate, October 1980-97**



SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-19. **Median weekly hours at work for employed full-time college students age 16-24 years by sex and total unemployment rate, October 1980-98**



SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

The hours gap between education levels has widened significantly between 1969 and 1998. In 1969, the population of males with less than a high school diploma worked about 6 fewer hours per week than their college-educated counterparts. By 1998, this gap had increased to about 13 hours. A similar trend is observed for women.

Trends in full-time year round work

Up to this point, we have been examining trends in weekly work time, specifically during the survey reference week. These data, therefore, do not tell us how much individuals work over a longer period of time. (See box for a long-term perspective on working hours using data from the Bureau's *National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979*.) Studying the increases or decreases in long-term hours of work patterns can be helpful in determining whether people are working more now than they did in the past.

One measure of long-term hours worked is derived from questions in the CPS March supplement. Every March, respondents to the CPS are asked additional questions on how much time they spent working during the previous calendar year. This information is used to determine what proportion of the population was employed full-time year round. That is, they worked 50 to 52 weeks a year, and usually worked 35 hours or more in most of the weeks.

Trends in the proportion of the civilian population age 16 or older working full-time year round are given in table 3-4. Like the trends in average weekly hours for this group, we find that while some worker groups spend more time on the job now than they did 30 years ago, others spend less, and, for some, there has been virtually no change at all. For instance, the proportion of youth age 16 to 24 who worked full-time year round increased somewhat during the seventies, was unchanged during the eighties, and declined slightly during the nineties. Workers age 55 and over show a decline between 1969 and 1997 with the majority of the decline taking place between 1969 and 1979. In contrast, workers age 25 to 54 show an increase in the proportion who worked full-time year round, from 53 percent in 1969 to 63 percent in 1997.

Cumulative Hours Worked Between the Ages of 18 and 32

A long-term perspective of working hours can be gained by examining the cumulative hours spent working from age 18 to 32. To construct such a measure, data on the same individuals over time are needed. The *National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979* collects such data. The survey is comprised of a sample of 9,964 men and women age 14 to 22 when first interviewed in 1979 and age 31 to 39 when interviewed in 1996. One of the unique features of the survey is that it collects information on all the jobs held by the respondents and the usual weekly hours that they worked at each job. Therefore, a longitudinal history of each respondent's work experiences can be constructed.

Table 3-3 provides the percent of total available hours spent working (a 40-hour workweek is 24 percent of the 168 total available hours in a week). The findings indicate that persons age 18 to 32 spent 18 percent of their time working. This percentage increased from 13.7 percent for those age 18 to 22 to 20 percent for those age 28 to 32.

On average, young men age 18 to 32 spent roughly 21 percent of their time working compared to 15 percent for their female counterparts. Those who eventually obtained a college degree spent considerably less time working when they were age 18 to 22 (presumably the age they were when attending college) than did their counterparts who ended their formal education earlier. However, between the ages of 28 and 32, males with a college degree spent the most amount of time working, roughly 26 percent of total available hours compared with 24 percent for male high school graduates. The difference is even larger for female college graduates age 28 to 32, who spent 19 percent of their time working, compared with 15 percent for their counterparts with a high school diploma.

Differences in cumulative work time are also apparent between and within race and ethnic groups. Between the ages of 18 and 32, whites spent nearly 19 percent of their time working, compared with 15 percent for blacks, and 17 percent for Hispanics. Among blacks, the time spent working increased dramatically by education level. Between the ages of 28 and 32, black college graduates spent twice as much time working as did blacks without a high school diploma.

All of the gain in the proportion of full-time year round workers age 25 to 54 was among women. In 1969, 27 percent of women age 25 to 54 worked full-time year round; by 1997, their proportion had risen to 50 percent. By contrast, the participation rate for men declined from 81 percent to 75 percent over the same period. This general decline for men is also observed within the four education levels. However, the decline is particularly striking for men age 25 to 54 with less than a high school diploma. For these men, the proportion who worked full-time year round went from 72 percent in 1969 to 57 percent in 1997. For women age 25 to 54 with a high school diploma or higher level of education, the proportion of full-time year round workers rose between 20 and 25 percentage points from 1969 to 1997. In contrast, the proportion of women without a high school diploma who worked full-time year round showed a 6-percentage point gain. By1997, the proportion of women without a high school diploma who worked full-time year round was about half that of the other women. (See table 3-4.)

Changes in hours worked by position in the earnings distribution

Another potentially interesting dimension on which to compare hours worked is to examine the hours worked by people in different parts of the earnings distribution. It is well known from the inequality literature (Levy and Murnane, 1992) that the distribution of wages has widened over the last few decades, so that those at the bottom of the earnings scale now earn less in both relative and absolute terms. Are these presumably less-skilled workers working more now in an effort to overcome the loss in their earnings capacity? Conversely, are those with relatively high wages working more now to take advantage of their higher earnings power?

Charts 3-20 and 3-21 show for both men and women age 25 to 54, respectively, the percentage change between 1979 and 1997 in average weekly hours worked for each decile of the weekly earnings distribution. The pattern for men indicates that those in the lower deciles of the earnings distribution were working fewer hours in 1997 than in 1979 and that the percentage decrease in weekly hours was the largest for those at the lowest decile. Conversely, men in the upper deciles of the earnings distribution were working more. These changes mirror the changes in male earnings inequality, in other words, those with lower earnings experienced declines in real earnings while those with higher earnings experienced gains in real earnings. Viewing the changes in hours and real earnings together shows that men at the bottom of the earnings distribution are working less and earning considerably less today than they did 20 years ago. In contrast, men at the middle of the distribution are working slightly more and making less and men at the upper end are working more and making more.[16]

The pattern is quite different for women. Women in all deciles of the weekly earnings distribution were working more in 1997 than in 1979, with the largest increases occurring among women at the lower deciles. The large increases in hours worked at the low end of the distribution are not surprising given that these women generally work the fewest hours and therefore have the most room to increase their hours. (For example, the 14.6-percent increase in hours among women in the 10^{th} percentile represents an increase in hours from 20.5 hours per week to 23.5 hours.) In general, women were working more and earning more in 1997 than they did in 1979.

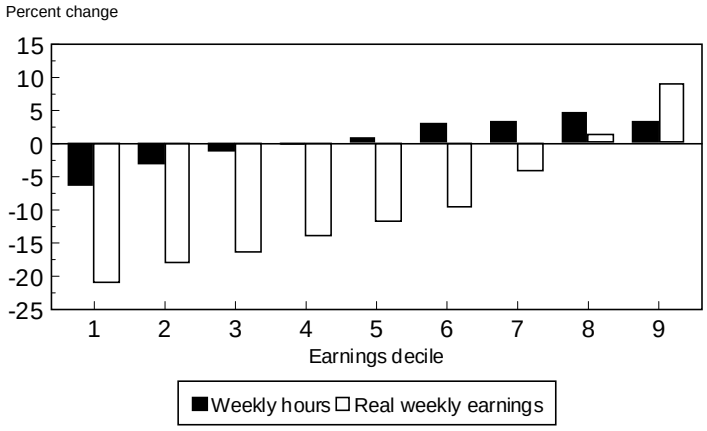
Trends in hours worked by family relationship and presence of children

The previous section documented the increase over the last 30 years in the amount of time women spent in the paid labor force. Over this same period, there has been a significant increase in the number of families maintained by a single adult. Both trends affect the amount of time parents, particularly mothers, spend with their children and the level of stress in people's lives. This section discusses the trends in the participation rates and the hours worked for groups of individuals in various types of families and by the presence and age of children.[17]

Charts 3-22 and 3-23 illustrate the dramatic increase in the labor force participation rates of wives and mothers age 25 to 54. In 1969, roughly 43 percent of wives were working or looking for work. By 1998, the percentage had skyrocketed to about 74 percent. Similarly, 23 percent of women with children under the age of 3 were labor force participants in 1969. Today, the majority (63 percent) of women with children under 3 is in the labor force .

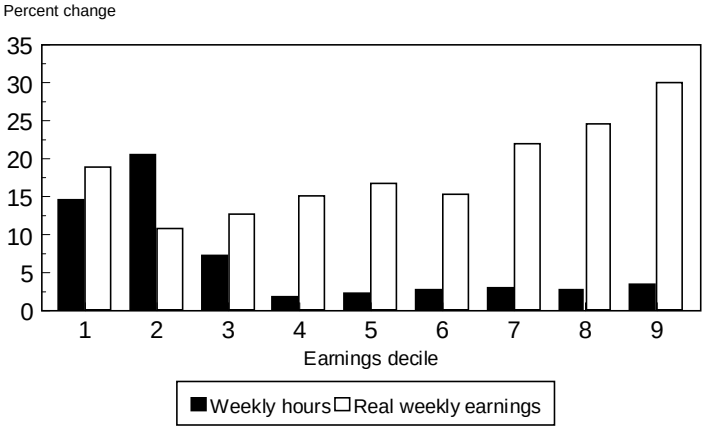
In contrast, the participation rates for husbands and fathers have drifted downward over the same period, even among those age 25 to 54. (See charts 3-24 and 3-25.) The labor force participation rate of husbands age 25 to 54 fell from 97 percent in 1969 to 95 percent in 1998. Participation rates for men in the same age group without

Chart 3-20. **Percentage change in weekly hours and real weekly earnings between 1979 and 1997 by earnings decile for men age 25-54 years**



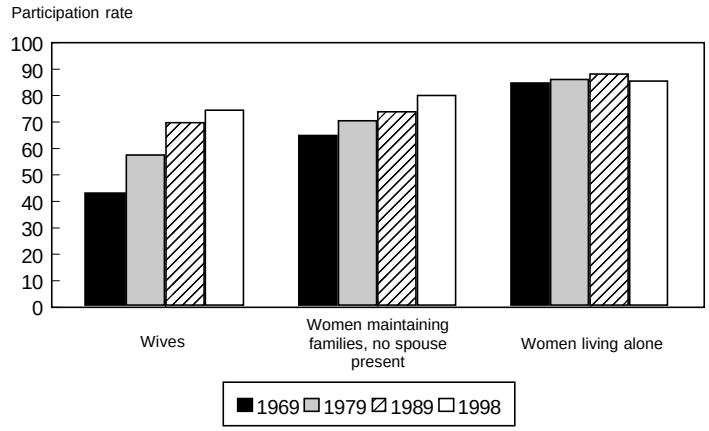
SOURCE: March Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-21. **Percentage change in weekly hours and real weekly earnings between 1979 and 1997 by earnings decile for women age 25-54 years**



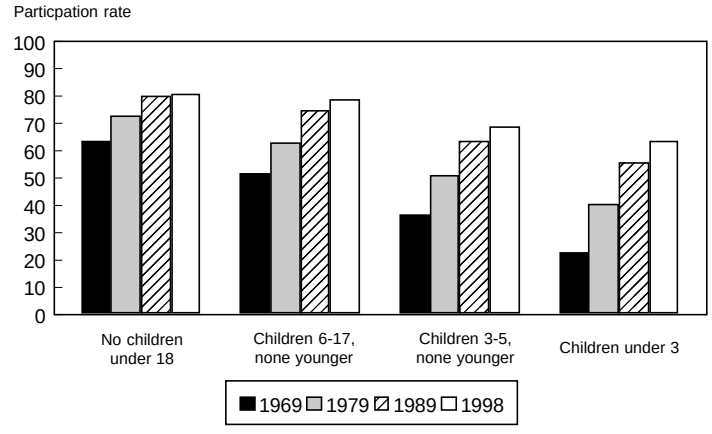
SOURCE: March Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-22.**Labor force particpation rates for women age 25-54 years by family type, March of selected years, 1969-98**



SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-23.**Labor force particpation rates for women age 25-54 years by presence and age of children, March of selected years, 1969-98**

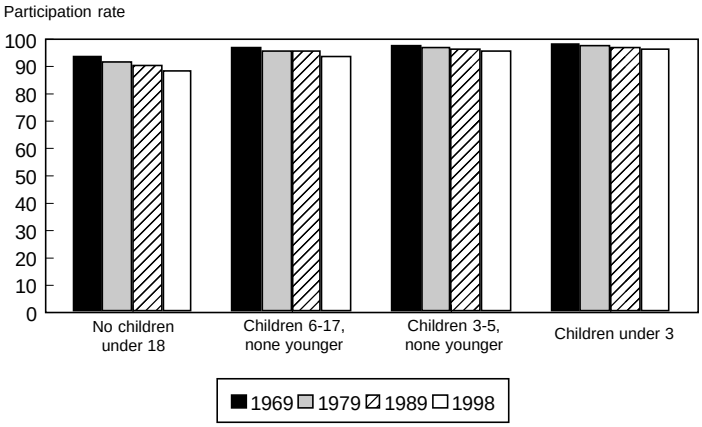


SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-24.**Labor force particpation rates for men age 25-54 years by family type, March of selected years, 1969-98**

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-25.**Labor force particpation rates for men age 25-54 years bypresence and age of children, March of selected years, 1969-98**



SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

children under 18 fell from 93 percent in 1969 to 89 percent in 1998. Because men in this age group without children are likely to be older than their counterparts with children, the fall in the participation rate among men age 25 to 54 partially reflects the move towards earlier retirement.

Table 3-5 shows the average weekly hours worked by workers age 25 to 54 by family relationship and presence and age of children. It also shows the percent working full-time year round.

Again the most striking trends are for women. While the average weekly hours among married women age 25 to 54 who are employed hovered around 33 per week from 1969 to 1998, the percent of married women working full-time year round doubled (increasing from 23 percent to 46 percent). Similar trends occurred among women in the same age group with children under the age of 3. In 1969, 7 percent of women with children under 3 worked full-time year round; in 1998, 32 percent did so.

Work hours among married couples

As shown earlier, more married women are employed and they are working more hours today than they did 30 years ago. In addition, there has been an increase in the number of men and women working extended workweeks. In this section, we focus on the hours worked by husbands and wives in married-couple families. How much more combined time are married couples devoting to work? Are the men who are working long hours usually married to women who do not work or work fewer hours? Has there been a rise in the number of dual-earner couples who both work longer workweeks?

Using data from the CPS March supplements, we examine the trends in combined average weekly hours worked and combined average annual hours worked by husbands and wives.[18] As shown in table 3-6, married couples spent, on average, 14 more hours working per week in 1998 then they did in 1969 and 717 more hours working per year in 1997 then they did in 1969. This increase in combined work effort occurred for both married couples with and without children under age 18. In fact, married couples with children under 6 experienced the largest increase, as their combined hours rose from 52.3 per week in 1969 to 68.3 in 1998 (an increase of 16 hours per week).

Tables 3-7 and 3-8 show how the distribution of wives' weekly work hours—classified by their husbands' weekly work hours—changed over time. Table 3-7 shows these trends for all married couples age 25 to 54 whereas table 3-8 presents corresponding data for married couples with children under 6. The results show a marked increase between 1969 and 1998 in the percentage of married couples with both the husband and wife working 35 or more hours per week. In 1969, 24 percent of married couples had both spouses working full-time compared with 43 percent in 1998. The increase is even more striking for married-couple families with children under age 6. In 1998, 31 percent of these couples had both spouses working full-time, up from 13 percent in 1969.

These data also show a decrease in the number of married couples where the husband works full-time (35 or more hours per week) and the wife does not work at all. The decline is apparent for all married couples as well as those with children under age 6. In 1969, two-thirds of married-couple families with children under age 6 had a father who worked 35 or more hours each week and a mother who did not work. By 1998, only 32 percent of these families had this traditional work arrangement, less than half the 1969 level.

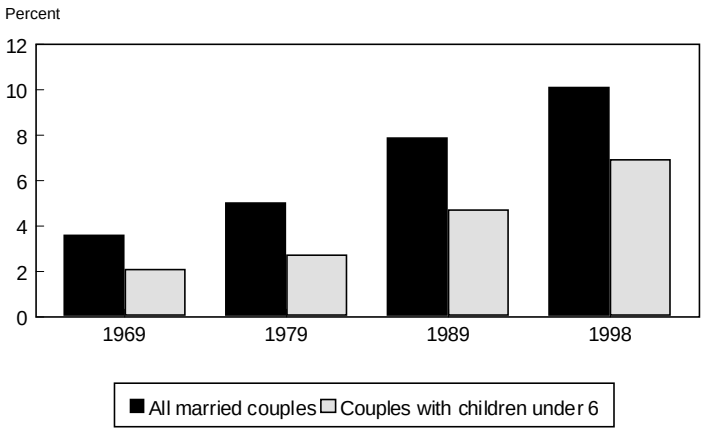
Conversely, the number of nontraditional families where the wife works at paid employment 35 or more hours per week and the husband works no hours is small but on the rise. Such arrangements may include situations where the husband is retired, a student, or at home to care for children. Among all married couples, the percent of families with such nontraditional work arrangements increased from 1.3 to 3.6 percent between 1969 and 1998 and from 0.6 to 2.6 percent for married-couple families with children under age 6. Lastly, there has been a steady increase in the number of married-couple families where both the husband and the wife work more than 40 hours per week.[19] (See chart 3-26.)

Changes in married couples hours by position in the income distribution

Have the increases in combined work hours among married couples been evenly distributed across the distribution of family incomes? In other words, have women from across the income spectrum increased the amount of time that they devote to paid employment?

Charts 3-27 and 3-28 show the percentage change between 1979 and 1997 in combined weekly hours worked and combined annual hours worked among married couples in each decile of the family income distribution. Married couples in the lowest 10 percent worked less in 1997 then they did in 1979. Married couples in the middle of the distribution (the 40th through 60th percen-

Chart 3-26. **Percent of married couples age 25-54 years where both spouses work more than 40 hours per week, March of selected years, 1969-98**



SOURCE: March Supplement, Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

tiles) had the largest increases in combined work hours, corresponding to about a 12-percent increase in combined weekly hours and a 16-percent increase in annual hours. Viewing these changes together with the changes in family incomes at each decile indicates that married-couple families in the middle of the income distribution, who have increased their work efforts the most, have not experienced the largest changes in income. Family incomes have grown fastest at the top of the distribution and have actually declined in real terms for married-couple families at the bottom of the distribution.

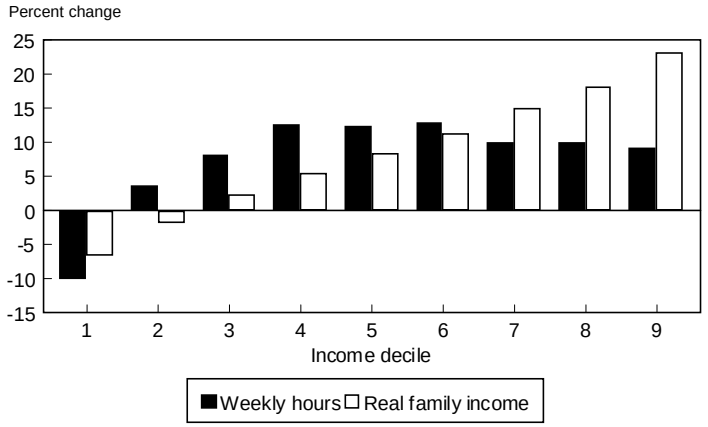
Employment Arrangements and Time Off

Given the reality that most women are now working in the paid labor market, policy makers at both the State and local level have drafted legislation aimed at helping workers with some of their nonwork responsibilities. Although employment arrangements that assist workers in meeting their family obligations are largely negotiated on an individual or employee group basis, some government mandates do exist.

The most prominent Federal initiative in the area of helping employees coordinate work and family obligations is the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993. This law requires that employers grant their workers time off for certain personal or family medical reasons such as caring for a sick child or parent without jeopardizing their jobs.[20] The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) was ground-breaking in the sense that it marked the first Federal legislation mandating time off from work for family reasons. However, prior to its passage in 1993 many individual States had already enacted similar legislation. For example, a 1988 Maine law required private sector employers and local governments with 25 or more employees to grant up to 8 weeks of unpaid leave for births or adoptions, or for the serious illness of the worker, child, parent, or spouse. A similar law was enacted in Wisconsin. In both States, reinstatement in the same, or similar, job was guaranteed.[21] In 1990, New Jersey and the District of Columbia passed comprehensive family leave laws.[22]

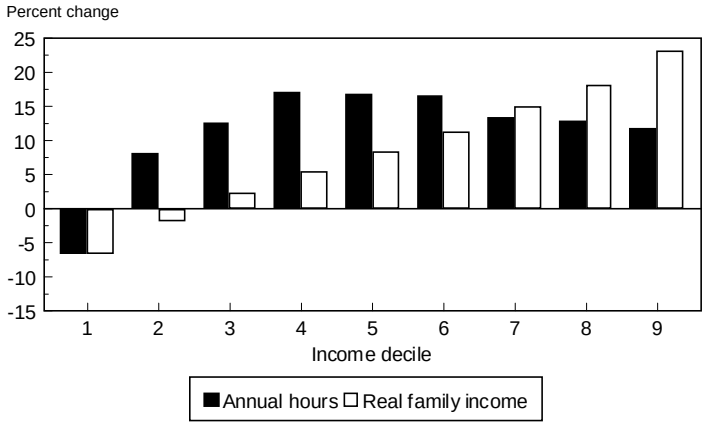
With the passage of the FMLA, State legislative activity in this area diminished. Some of the legislation enacted after the FMLA was designed to bring States into compliance with Federal law. Other legislation extended family leave provisions into new areas. In 1994, the District of Columbia required employers to grant time for parents to participate in their children's school related activities.[23] And, in 1997, an extant California law mandating parental leave to attend school functions was extended.[24]

Chart 3-27. **Percentage change in combined weekly hours and real family income between 1979 and 1997 for married couples age 25-54 years by income decile**



SOURCE: March Supplement, Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statisttics, U.S. Department of Labor

Chart 3-28. **Percentage change in combined annual hours and real family income between 1979 and 1997 for married couples age 25-54 years by income decile**



SOURCE: March Supplement, Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statisttics, U.S. Department of Labor

Flexible work schedules and work at home

The data discussed so far show a fairly consistent picture of the expanding role that paid work is playing in family life. Women are tending to work more paid hours a week; in married-couple families, especially those with children, both spouses are increasingly likely to be labor force participants; both spouses are full-time year round workers in a significant, and growing proportion of families. Meeting work requirements and family responsibilities is a problem for a growing proportion of families. There are two practices that are considered important in helping employees manage personal and work time effectively: Flexible work schedules and work at home.

Flexible work schedules, or "flexitime," have long been viewed as a means by which employees can combine work and family life in a more efficient, less stressful way than is possible if workers adhere to a rigid schedule. There are several types of formal flexible work arrangements. One type is a "gliding schedule" that requires a specified number of hours of work each day but allows employees to vary the time of their arrival and departure, usually around an established set of mandatory "core hours." Other types of flexible work arrangements include variable-day and variable-week schedules that usually require a specified number of hours per pay period. Employees, under these plans, are permitted to choose the number of hours they wish to work each day, or the number of days they want to work each week. Credit or compensatory time arrangements allow employees who accumulate overtime hours to apply those hours to future time off from work, rather than receiving the overtime pay rate for those hours. The presence of one or more of these arrangements in the workplace does not necessarily exclude the others; many can be used in conjunction with other flexible work arrangements.[25]

Flexitime has been in the workplace for many years, but some observers have noted problems that may have retarded its spread. One is the difficulty that management can have in adapting to widespread use of flexitime. Managers often fear that discipline and productivity may slip if they are not present when their employees are on the job (an impossibility with flexitime). On the other hand, employees may be reluctant to use such a benefit for fear of being perceived by management as less important to the organization's operations.[26] Thus, studies indicate limited use of existing flexitime programs.[27]

The proportion of wage and salary workers who vary their beginning and ending hours increased significantly during the 1990s. In May 1997 (the most recent year for which these data are available),[28] 27.6 percent of all wage and salary workers were able to vary their work hours somewhat. (See table 3-9.) Six years earlier, in 1991, the proportion was 15.1 percent. These gains were spread across most demographic groups and most occupational categories. It is likely, though, that a great many of the workers who report being able to vary their beginning and ending times do so under informal arrangements with their employers or supervisors. Data from the Bureau's 1997 Employee Benefits Survey, a survey of employers, indicate that less than 6 percent of employees have formal flexible work schedule arrangements.[29]

Although flexitime is often considered a "family-friendly" benefit, it is by no means only available to parents. In May 1997, the proportion of wage and salary workers with children under age 18 who were able to vary the hours they worked (28.9 percent), was only a little greater than the proportion for those who had no children under age 18 (26.8 percent). Among the parents, the incidence of flexitime was greater among those with children under age 6 (30.2 percent) than among those whose youngest child was age 6 to 17 (27.9 percent). Fathers were more likely to have flexible work schedules than mothers. Generally, only one parent had a flexible hours arrangement. Only in 5 percent of two-parent families in which both the mother and father were wage and salary workers did both parents have some sort of flexible hours arrangement.

Ultimately, however, the family situation is probably not the primary factor in determining whether a worker can elect to vary his or her beginning and ending hours. The data clearly show that the availability of flexitime depends a great deal on the type of job a worker holds. Generally, the jobs with the higher frequencies of flexible hours are those where work can be conducted efficiently regardless of the times that individual workers start and end work. For instance, flexible work hours are most common among workers in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations, and sales occupations, and least common among workers with jobs that must adhere to rigid schedules, such as nursing, teaching, law enforcement, and firefighting.

To a lesser degree, the prevalence of flexible work schedules also varied by industry and was more common in the private sector than the public sector (in 1997, 28.8 percent versus 21.7 percent, respectively). The public sector proportion

How Much Time is Spent Commuting to Work in the United States?

The nonwork time use that is most closely related to employment is travel time to work ("commuting time"). Data on commuting times of all workers in the United States are available from the 1980 and 1990 population census. The average one way commuting time for workers changed very little between 1980 and 1990, increasing by less than a minute one way each day. Thus, the 1990 commuting data may provide a good indication of current commuting times.

In 1990, the average one way commuting time for all U.S. workers was about 22 minutes per day. About one-half of all U.S. workers (including those who did not commute) had commuting times of less than 20 minutes per day and about 31 percent spent a half-hour or more on commuting each way. In general, average travel times were less in rural areas than in urban areas (in part because many workers on ranches and farms do not commute at all). For example, average one way commuting times were less than 15 minutes per day for workers in Montana, North Dakota, and South Dakota. However, average commuting times in metropolitan areas were only about a minute longer than the average for all workers. In only one metropolitan area in the United States—New York City along with its adjacent suburban areas in New Jersey and Long Island—did the average one way commute exceed a half-hour a day.

The Bureau of the Census Internet site, ***http://www.census.gov***, contains additional information and geographical detail on census data.

is low due to the rate for local government workers—13 percent. Over half of those employed in local governments are in education, where only 7.6 percent of the workers have the ability to vary the hours at which they begin and end work. Within private industry, the proportion of workers with flexible schedules was higher in service producing industries (31.7 percent) than in goods-producing industries (23.3 percent), reflecting the rigidity of work hours in manufacturing, construction, and mining.[30]

Working at home also is viewed as a way to help reconcile the demands of work and family. One obvious advantage of working at home is the savings in commuting time. Working exclusively at home would save the average worker roughly 44 minutes a day. Bureau of the Census data indicate that in 1990 the average journey to work took about 22 minutes each way. (See box.) Table 3-10 shows that overall, about 17.7 percent of nonagricultural employees did some work at home for their primary job in May 1997. (This includes individuals who bring work home from the office, those who have "flexiplace"[31] arrangements, and those who are self-employed and do part of their work out of their own homes.) Of the total who work at home, some 5.2 million, or a little less than one-fourth, do so to coordinate their work schedule with family and personal life.

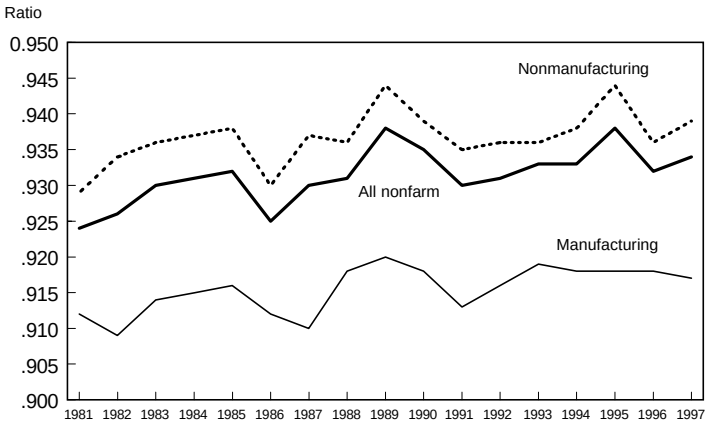
About one-fifth of married parents who were nonagricultural employees worked at home for 1 hour or more a week on their primary job. Married mothers are somewhat more likely than fathers to work at home. Work at home, however, has not grown a great deal during the 1990s, although there are more mothers in the labor force now than at the beginning of the decade.

Time off from work

Alternative work time and work place arrangements are just some of the means employers have used to accommodate family obligations. In this section, we review BLS data on time off from work—primarily time off from work for which the worker continues to be paid by the employer (paid leave). These data can provide insight into trends in the overall extent of paid leave, the availability of specific types of time off, amounts of time off available, and variations in these data among workers, types of jobs, and types of employers.

The 1976 *Report of the Task Force on Hours Worked* noted the possibility that the work week might be declining more rapidly then hours worked indicates because the amount of paid leave per worker appeared to be increasing. (Periodic Employer Expenditures for Employee Compensation Surveys appear to confirm that paid leave per worker grew during the 1960s and 1970s.) As a result of the 1976 *Report*, the BLS Hours at Work Survey began surveying establishments in 1981 to collect data on both hours at work and hours paid for production and nonsupervisory workers. The survey measures paid leave as vacation, holiday, sick leave, and jury and military

Chart 3-29. **Ratio of hours at work to hours paid by sector, 1981-97**



SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

leave. Machine down time and other "nonproductive" time are beyond the scope of the survey.

The Hours at Work Survey indicates that hours worked as a proportion of hours paid (for production or nonsupervisory workers) have fluctuated in a narrow range between 92 and 94 percent (with the corresponding paid leave percentage varying from 6 to 8 percent) between 1981 and 1997. (See chart 3-29.) The survey includes full- and part-time, year round, part-year, and seasonal workers (who usually earn much less, if any, paid leave than full-time workers), and excludes most managers (who may earn more leave than production or supervisory employees). The hours worked to hours paid ratios usually fall during recessions and then rise with economic recovery. One explanation for this cyclical behavior focuses on the fact that, during recessions, employers tend to lay off their least senior workers and rehire them when conditions improve; workers with the least job tenure also tend to earn the least leave. Another explanation could be that jobs destroyed during recessions have fewer benefits in general, regardless of tenure, than do jobs that are maintained through the business cycle. For example, construction jobs tend to be highly sensitive to business conditions. For many workers in construction, no paid leave is offered and, on average, paid leave provides only 2.9 percent of hours paid.[32] Chart 3-29 also indicates that more paid leave has been provided, on average, in manufacturing industries than in other industries and that this differential in the provision of paid leave has persisted over the 1981-97 period.

The ratio of hours worked to hours paid over time depends on how many jobs provide paid leave as well as how much paid leave is provided in jobs having this benefit. A study of the underlying data used to construct the BLS Employment Cost Index indicates that the percentage of employment in all jobs that do not provide any paid leave is small but has been increasing steadily since the early-1980s.[33] This study indicates that in the 1981-83 period, 7.8 percent of total civilian nonagricultural employment outside the Federal Government was in jobs not offering any paid leave, but that by the 1995-97 period, such jobs were held by 13.9 percent of this group's workers. These research results suggest that the apparent stability of the overall hours worked to hours paid ratio over time reflects both a growth in paid time off in jobs with this benefit and a decline in the share of employment in jobs offering paid time off.

The Hours at Work Survey also indicates substantial differences in paid leave for production and nonsupervisory jobs between industries. (Table 3-11 displays ratios of hours at work to hours paid for selected industries). In construction, production and nonsupervisory workers earn substantially less paid leave, with paid leave comprising 2.9 percent of hours paid (an at-work ra-

tio of 97.1 percent). Retail trade (95.9 percent), lumber and wood products (94.0 percent), and apparel manufacture (94.6 percent) also offer relatively little paid leave. At the other end of the spectrum, communications industries offered the most paid leave, as nonsupervisory employees work 88.2 percent of hours paid. Transportation equipment manufacturers (89.2 percent), electric, gas, and sanitary services (89.6 percent), petroleum and coal products (89.6 percent), and electrical equipment manufacturers (89.8 percent) also allow employees to work less than 90 percent of their paid hours.

The relative amount of paid leave provided tends to be larger in establishments with greater employment. For example, in 1997, employees in establishments with more than 2,500 employees worked just 87 percent of hours paid. In contrast, employees of establishments with less than 50 employees worked more than 95 percent of hours paid. Thus, the paid leave rate for employees of large establishments is more than 2½ times the rate for employees in small establishments.

While hours at work data indicate the ratio of hours worked to hours paid, data from another BLS survey, the Employee Benefits Survey, provide additional detail on the types of paid time off benefits available to employees and the amount of time off these benefits provide. For most workers, paid time off is provided through a series of specific-purpose benefits, such as vacations, holidays, sick leave, and funeral leave. A small percentage of workers receive time off through a consolidated arrangement, where employees are provided a single amount of time off to be used for all purposes. The availability and duration of time off benefits can vary by several factors, including industry, occupation, full- and part-time status, and the size of the establishment. (See tables 3-12 and 3-13.)

Paid vacations are the most prevalent type of time off benefit, available to about 76 percent of all workers. While such benefits are generally widespread among full-time workers, those in larger establishments are provided paid vacations more frequently than those in smaller establishments. Eighty-seven percent of full-time employees receive paid vacations, compared with 34 percent of their part-time counterparts. Workers typically have to have been on the job for some amount of time, such as 1 year, before vacation time is available. The number of vacation days available generally increases with length of service, ranging from about 10 days after 1 year of service to 20 or more days after 20 years of service. Workers in certain industries, notably construction, are less likely to have formal leave arrangements. Such workers are only paid for time worked.

While paid vacations are provided for workers to take leisure time, more specific time-off plans are also common. Paid holidays are widespread; as with paid vacations, full-time workers and those in larger establishments are more likely to receive such benefits. In addition, paid holidays are more prevalent in goods-producing industries than in service-producing industries. This may be due in part to the growing tendency of certain service-producing establishments to be open for business on holidays. For certain enterprises, such as hospitals, hotels, and restaurants, this has always been the case. In more recent years, retail trade and personal service establishments have also followed the trend toward work on holidays. When employees receive paid holidays but work for an establishment that is open on the holiday, those that work either receive another day off in lieu of the holiday or receive extra pay to account for both the holiday and the work day.

Other widespread time off plans pay for time away from work to attend funerals or to fulfill jury duty service. In the case of jury duty leave, employers typically pay the difference between the employee's jury duty pay and their full pay. Employees who receive paid military leave, a less prevalent benefit, generally have a similar payment arrangement.

Paid sick leave is less prevalent than vacation or holiday leave. (Such benefits continue an individual's salary when they are unable to work due to sickness or injury.) Overall, 50 percent of all workers receive paid sick leave, including 75 percent of professional workers. Other white-collar workers may have informal sick leave arrangements. Replacement of lost income during temporary illness or injury for blue-collar workers is generally provided through an insurance plan, which provides less than full wages. Because such payments are not part of earnings, they would not be included in the ratio of hours worked to hours paid.

Another benefit that will generally not be included in the ratio of hours worked to hours paid is unpaid family leave, which is widespread among large employers. Such benefits are provided to fulfill the requirements of the Family and Medical Leave Act, which guarantees certain workers up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave to care for newborns, newly adopted children, or sick relatives, or for personal illness. Such benefits are less widespread among small establishments, because

the law generally applies only to those establishments employing 50 or more workers.

A small number of workers receive time off benefits through a consolidated leave plan, which is sometimes referred to as a leave bank. Under such arrangements, employees are given a single amount of time off for a year, such as 30 or 40 days. This is to be used to schedule vacations as well as to cover sick time and other personal matters. Because such plans are generally established in hospitals and other facilities that never close, holidays are not specifically designated. Individuals apply for time off, which may include holidays, often based on seniority.

In contrast to the Employee Benefits Survey, the Bureau's National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979 (NLSY79) looks at the subject of paid time off benefits from an employee, rather than an employer, perspective. That is, the NLSY79 indicates what benefits individuals receive, and variations by demographic group. Among those workers age 32 to 40, 3 out of 4 were eligible for paid vacations while just under two-thirds were eligible for paid sick leave and family leave. (See table 3-14.) Women age 32 to 40 are more likely than men to have jobs that offer maternity and paternity leave, but less likely to be in jobs that have paid vacations. Workers in certain industries, notably construction and retail trade, were less likely to have time off benefits available. Similarly, professional workers and managers tended to be eligible for time off benefits more often than those in other occupations. The benefits were much more prevalent among full-time than among part-time workers and the availability of time off generally increased the longer an individual worked for an employer. These data tend to support the variations found in the hours paid/hours worked data.

For those who had paid vacations and paid sick leave, there was less variation in the number of days available by industry and occupation. (See table 3-15.) Construction and retail trade workers again lagged behind those in other industries, although generally by a day or two. The average number of days of vacation and sick leave rose steadily with job tenure, reflecting the design of many of these plans. Among full- and part-time workers, there was not much difference in the average number of days of paid vacation and sick leave available. However, part-time workers generally receive days off in proportion of their hours worked. So, someone working five 4-hour days may receive an average of 9.4 paid sick leave days, but each paid day off is 4 hours.

Trends in nonwork time

What do Americans do with their nonwork time? To answer this question, one needs detailed individual time-use data. One method of collecting such data is through a time-use survey. In this type of survey, respondents are asked to report sequentially every activity performed during a 24-hour day. Start and stop times are collected for each activity, thus allowing the duration of various types of activities to be calculated. This measurement approach has been used extensively (Szalai, 1972) and is generally viewed as a reliable way to estimate the amount of time spent in various activities such as working, watching television, and performing household chores. (See box for more information on other applications of time-use data.)

A number of national time-use surveys have been conducted in the United States. (None of these surveys have been conducted by the Federal Government.[34]) To examine the ways in which Americans spend their nonworking time, researchers using these data usually group all unpaid activities into the following categories (a) personal care, (b) education, (c) domestic and family care, (d) shopping, (e) volunteer work, (f) social and community activities, and (g) recreation and leisure. Using this data researchers have found small but noticeable changes in the distribution of activities that fill the daily lives of the American worker.

Due to increased labor force participation by women, lower marriage rates, and lower birth rates, the time spent on domestic activities has changed both in its quantity and social pattern since the 1960s (Robinson and Godbey, 1997). Men are spending more time doing housework while women are spending less time at these activities. Table 3-16, taken from John Robinson and Geoffrey Godbey's book, *Time for Life: The Surprising Ways Americans Use Their Time*, shows that women spent nearly 27 hours per week doing housework in 1965, compared with 19 hours per week in 1985. Men, on the other hand, increased their hours of housework from 5 to 9 hours per week between 1965 and 1985. Although the division of housework is not yet evenly split between the sexes, the fact that the trends for men and women are in opposite directions suggests that there is a social thrust toward parity.

Other time-use survey categories show only minimal changes across the decades. One noticeable exception was the increase in the amount of time spent on free-time activities, the majority of which is spent viewing television. This increase

Potential Applications for National Time-use Survey Data

A time-use survey is one approach to collecting information on the hours that people spend working or doing other activities. In addition to providing data on hours spent working that could be used to verify data that are currently collected in the CPS and other surveys, time-use survey data could also provide a wealth of information on how Americans spend their time. Data are obtained on time spent in productive nonmarket activities such as child care; housework and home repairs; leisure activities such as reading, watching television, and socializing; and nonproductive, nonleisure activities such as waiting and commuting. Given the wide range of information collected, national level time-use survey data could have numerous potential applications. Potential uses include:

International comparisons. In addition to comparing measures of material-well-being, such as gross domestic product (GDP), analysts could also study how the United States compares with other countries on nonmaterial dimensions such as hours of free time. Furthermore, time-use data, in conjunction with wage rates, could be used to enhance our measures of aggregate production by incorporating the value of nonmarket production. Because many of the goods and services that households enjoy—particularly child care, meal preparation, and household maintenance—are not purchased in the market but "produced" at home through the direct efforts of family members, GDP comparisons do not provide a comprehensive picture of aggregate output. This may be particularly important for comparisons with less-developed countries, where household production often includes food production which is a large contribution to family well being.

Quality of life measures. Usually, analysts use quantifiable measures, such as real income or earnings, to assess changes in the quality of life over time. Collecting information on time-use would permit a more complete assessment of changes in the quality of life. For example, stories in the mass media report on individuals quitting high salary jobs that require long working hours to take lower paying jobs with fewer hours. While such people consider themselves "better off," any objective measure of income or earnings would indicate that these individuals are "worse off." Data from a time-use survey would permit analysts to account for the increase in nonmarket production and leisure time in assessing changes to the quality of life.

Marketing applications. Marketers could use time-use data to determine how activities (such as TV viewing, radio listening, shopping, and eating out) differ by demographic characteristics and income.

Legal applications. For the judicial system, time-use data might be useful for estimating the economic damages in personal injury and wrongful death cases. Currently, economic damages primarily include only lost earnings. Time-use data might provide a more complete picture.

in hours of TV viewing was particularly large for women. (See table 3-17.)

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter discussed what empirical data indicate about the hours worked in the labor force and the provisions for time off that are provided by employers. The major labor force survey, the CPS, indicates that average weekly hours of work among those employed have been fairly stable since 1960, fluctuating in a narrow range between 38 and 40 hours per week. However, the stability of this economy-wide average conceals a number of interesting changes that have occurred within certain subpopulations and within the distribution of weekly hours.

First, the proportion of women employed has increased substantially, as wives and mothers have joined the labor force in very large numbers. This increase in participation has been coupled with a small upward trend in the average number of hours worked among employed women, so women are

clearly working more now than they did 30 years ago. Second, although the trends in the average weekly hours worked among employed men have been flat, there has been an increase in the proportion of men who are working extended workweeks (more than 40 hours per week). Third, data on married-couple families indicates that couples, particularly those with small children, are spending considerably more combined hours at work. The number of couples where both spouses work long hours has also increased. These trends, combined with an increase in the number of single parents, have likely resulted in a "time-bind" for some individuals.

However, some people are working less today than in the past. For example, the average weekly hours worked among the population of men age 25 to 54 with less than a high school education fell from 38.3 hours per week in 1969 to 29.7 hours per week in 1998. Male workers in the lower end of the earnings distribution were also working less in 1998 than in 1979.

The overall stability of work hours since 1960 also masks certain changes that have occurred in the basic structure of work time; traditional work hours and time off benefits are changing. BLS labor force data show the proportion of wage and salary workers indicating they had some flexibility in their work schedules increased from 16 percent in 1991 to 30 percent in 1997.

Finally, the data indicate that the availability of paid time off has declined slightly over time. Traditional time off benefits, such as paid vacations and paid holidays, are still prevalent, but may not always meet the needs of today's workers. Those in part-time jobs are substantially less likely to be offered paid time off benefits and, even if offered, are likely to receive less generous benefits than their full-time counterparts. Likewise, the trend away from traditional work hours, such as retailers remaining open on Sundays and holidays, may require less traditional time off benefits. There is evidence from the Employee Benefits Survey that employers may be beginning to address this need through flexible time off arrangements.

With the passage of the Family and Medical Leave Act in 1993 both employers and employees entered a new era. While work hours and overtime provisions have been regulated for much of the 20th century, this Act imposed upon employers, for the first time, a mandate to provide leave benefits. Since that time, policy makers have continued to debate this topic, with regular calls to expand these benefits. A better understanding of work-family conflicts that could come from more comprehensive time-use data could aid in this debate.

Table 3-1. **Percent distribution of employed persons by weekly hours at work, age, and sex, annual averages, selected years 1979-98**

Age and sex	Total	1 to 34 hours				35 or more hours							
										41 or more hours			
		Total	1-4	5-14	15-29	30-34	Total	35-39	40	Total	41-48	49-59	60 or more
16 years and over													
1979	100.0	25.0	0.8	4.3	11.9	8.0	75.0	7.1	41.7	26.2	10.7	9.16	.5
1989	100.0	23.3	.7	3.9	11.7	7.0	76.7	6.7	40.1	30.0	10.8	11.3	7.9
1998	100.0	26.3	1.1	3.9	12.3	9.0	73.7	6.9	35.1	31.6	11.6	11.5	8.5
Men													
1979	100.0	17.1	.5	2.7	7.6	6.3	82.9	4.4	43.3	35.1	13.0	12.7	9.4
1989	100.0	15.8	.4	2.6	7.7	5.1	84.2	4.4	40.8	39.0	12.5	15.1	11.4
1998	100.0	18.9	.8	2.6	8.4	7.2	81.1	5.1	35.7	40.2	13.1	15.1	11.9
Women													
1979	100.0	35.8	1.2	6.6	17.7	10.3	64.2	10.7	39.5	14.0	7.5	4.1	2.4
1989	100.0	32.2	1.0	5.5	16.5	9.2	67.8	9.4	39.2	19.2	8.8	6.7	3.7
1998	100.0	35.1	1.4	5.5	17.0	11.2	64.9	9.2	34.3	21.6	9.8	7.3	4.4
16 to 24 years													
1979	100.0	35.2	1.4	8.7	19.6	5.5	64.8	7.4	39.0	18.4	9.5	5.7	3.2
1989	100.0	40.7	1.3	8.8	23.1	7.5	59.3	7.0	34.4	17.9	8.1	6.3	3.5
1998	100.0	46.9	1.5	9.5	25.6	10.3	53.1	7.6	28.7	16.8	7.6	5.6	3.5
Men													
1979	100.0	32.3	1.1	7.0	16.7	7.5	67.7	4.9	38.8	24.0	11.4	7.9	4.7
1989	100.0	35.4	1.1	7.6	20.9	5.9	64.6	5.7	36.0	22.8	9.4	8.4	5.0
1998	100.0	40.9	1.3	8.1	22.2	9.4	59.1	6.6	31.2	21.4	9.1	7.3	4.9
Women													
1979	100.0	38.6	1.7	10.6	23.1	3.2	61.4	10.3	39.3	11.7	7.3	3.1	1.3
1989	100.0	46.2	1.4	10.1	25.4	9.2	53.8	8.4	32.6	12.8	6.7	4.1	2.0
1998	100.0	53.6	1.7	11.2	29.3	11.4	46.4	8.6	26.1	11.7	6.1	3.7	1.9
25 to 54 years													
1979	100.0	20.5	.5	2.5	8.7	8.9	79.5	6.9	43.0	29.6	11.3	10.5	7.7
1989	100.0	17.8	.4	2.3	8.3	6.8	82.2	6.4	41.9	33.8	11.8	12.9	9.1
1998	100.0	26.7	.8	2.3	8.9	8.7	79.3	6.8	37.0	35.5	12.9	13.0	9.6
Men													
1979	100.0	11.2	.2	1.0	4.1	5.9	88.8	4.2	44.8	39.9	13.9	14.7	11.2
1989	100.0	10.2	.2	1.1	4.1	4.8	89.8	4.0	42.0	43.8	13.6	17.1	13.1
1998	100.0	13.1	.5	1.1	4.9	6.6	86.9	4.8	37.2	44.9	14.4	17.0	13.5
Women													
1979	100.0	33.7	.9	4.6	15.1	13.1	66.3	10.8	40.4	15.1	7.7	4.6	2.7
1989	100.0	27.2	.8	3.8	13.5	9.1	72.8	9.4	41.9	21.5	9.7	7.6	4.2
1998	100.0	29.9	1.1	3.8	13.7	11.2	76.1	9.2	36.7	24.2	11.0	8.3	4.9
55 years and over													
1979	100.0	29.1	1.3	6.0	13.9	7.9	70.9	7.3	40.3	23.3	9.5	7.7	6.1
1989	100.0	30.9	1.5	6.3	15.7	7.4	69.1	7.5	37.1	24.5	8.6	9.0	7.0
1998	100.0	34.1	2.1	6.4	16.2	9.4	65.9	6.9	31.9	27.1	9.0	9.9	8.2
Men													
1979	100.0	21.4	.9	4.3	9.7	6.5	78.6	4.8	43.5	30.4	11.7	10.6	8.1
1989	100.0	23.3	1.1	4.8	11.5	5.9	76.7	4.9	40.0	31.8	10.1	12.1	9.6
1998	100.0	27.5	1.7	4.9	12.9	8.1	72.5	5.6	33.3	34.2	10.1	13.0	11.1
Women													
1979	100.0	40.4	1.9	8.4	20.1	10.0	59.6	11.1	35.7	12.9	6.3	3.6	3.0
1989	100.0	40.6	2.0	8.4	21.0	9.3	59.4	10.9	33.4	15.1	6.6	4.9	3.6
1998	100.0	42.4	2.6	8.2	20.5	11.1	57.6	9.4	30.1	18.1	7.7	5.9	4.5

NOTE: Data for 1998 are not directly comparable with data for earlier years. For additional information, see household data section of Explanatory Notes in *Employment and Earnings*, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-2. **Average weekly hours at work for persons age 25-54 by educational attainment and sex, March of selected years 1969-98**

Education level and sex	1969	1979	1989	1998
Civilian population				
Men	41.3	38.9	38.2	37.9
Less than a high school diploma	38.3	33.4	29.4	29.7
High school diploma	42.8	39.4	37.7	36.4
Some college	42.1	40.1	39.7	38.4
College degree or higher	44.0	42.6	43.0	42.8
Women	16.2	20.3	25.0	26.6
Less than a high school diploma	14.6	14.9	15.7	16.7
High school diploma	16.6	20.3	24.8	25.5
Some college	15.7	22.1	26.7	27.6
College degree or higher	20.2	25.9	30.1	31.1
Civilian employed				
Men	43.7	43.0	43.1	43.2
Less than a high school diploma	42.0	40.6	39.1	39.9
High school diploma	44.3	42.9	42.7	42.5
Some college	44.2	43.5	43.4	43.0
College degree or higher	45.5	44.6	45.4	45.2
Women	34.3	34.3	35.6	36.1
Less than a high school diploma	34.3	33.6	33.8	34.2
High school diploma	34.3	34.1	35.3	35.6
Some college	33.3	34.2	35.5	35.7
College degree or higher	35.1	35.5	36.9	37.4

NOTE: Data for 1998 are not directly comparable with data for earlier years. In 1998, information on educational levels reflects highest degree or diploma attained; in prior years, data reflect years of school completed. For additional information on other comparability issues, see household data section of Explanatory Notes in *Employment and Earnings*, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, March supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-3. **Percent of total available hours[1] spent working for persons age 18-32, by sex, educational attainment, race, and Hispanic origin, 1978-95**

Characteristic	Percent			
	Total	Age[2]		
		18-22	23-27	28-32
Total	18.0	13.7	18.8	20.0
Men	20.8	15.2	21.6	23.8
Less than a high school diploma	19.7	16.0	20.5	20.7
High school diploma	21.8	17.6	22.0	23.9
Some college	21.1	15.8	22.0	23.5
College graduates	19.6	9.7	21.3	25.9
Women	15.0	12.0	15.8	16.1
Less than a high school diploma	10.0	7.7	8.7	10.9
High school diploma	14.7	13.6	14.7	15.1
Some college	16.1	13.3	17.4	17.2
College graduates	16.9	10.1	19.8	19.3
White	18.7	14.4	19.5	20.7
Less than a high school diploma	17.1	13.8	16.9	17.9
High school diploma	19.3	16.9	19.2	20.3
Some college	19.0	15.3	20.1	20.5
College graduates	18.3	10.1	20.6	22.5
Black	14.7	10.1	15.8	17.1
Less than a high school diploma	11.0	8.0	11.6	12.2
High school diploma	14.6	10.9	15.6	16.8
Some college	15.8	10.5	16.8	17.9
College graduates	18.1	8.7	20.7	24.4
Hispanic origin	16.7	13.2	16.9	18.5
Less than a high school diploma	15.0	12.5	14.1	15.4
High school diploma	16.7	14.0	17.2	18.6
Some college	18.4	14.1	18.6	19.6
College graduates	18.2	9.2	18.5	22.7

[1] Total available hours equal 168 per week.

[2] Data for a group of individuals was collected over a period of years (1979-95). In 1978 the participating individuals were age 14-22. In 1995 these same individuals were age 31-38.

SOURCE: National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-4. **Percent of persons age 16 and over working full-time year round, by age, educational attainment, and sex, selected years 1969-97**

Age, educational attainment, and sex	1969	1979	1989	1997
Age				
16-24	19.1	23.3	23.7	21.4
25-54	53.0	54.8	59.9	62.6
55 and over	27.4	22.2	19.3	21.1
Educational attainment				
Men age 25-54	80.6	75.5	74.6	75.4
Less than a high school diploma..	72.0	62.3	55.1	57.4
High school diploma	84.6	76.6	74.2	74.1
Some college	85.0	77.2	78.1	77.3
College degree or higher	86.7	84.1	83.7	83.5
Women age 25-54	27.5	35.4	45.8	50.2
Less than a high school diploma..	22.3	23.3	27.0	28.9
High school diploma	28.7	36.4	45.0	48.6
Some college	27.9	39.5	49.5	52.9
College degree or higher	39.5	44.4	55.9	58.4

NOTE: Data for 1997 are not directly comparable with data for earlier years. In 1998, information on educational levels reflects highest degree or diploma attained; in prior years data reflect years of school completed. For additional information on other comparability issues, see household data section or Explanatory Notes in Employment and Earnings, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, March supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-5. **Average weekly hours at work and percent of workers working full-time year-round for workers age 25-54 by family relationship, presence and age of youngest child, and sex, selected years**

Family relationship and presence and age of youngest child[1]	Average weekly hours March—				Percent working full-time year round			
	1969	1979	1989	1998[2]	1969	1979	1989	1997
Family relationship								
Men								
Married, spouse present	44.2	43.6	44.1	44.2	83.7	80.7	80.9	82.5
Maintaining a family no spouse present	41.6	42.4	41.2	41.5	74.5	68.2	68.3	71.0
Living alone	41.7	41.7	42.3	42.3	68.3	64.3	68.1	68.8
Women								
Married, spouse present	33.2	32.8	34.3	34.9	22.5	29.8	41.1	46.1
Maintaining a family, no spouse present	36.0	36.6	37.3	36.9	39.5	44.2	48.4	52.6
Living alone	38.5	38.5	39.4	39.6	62.2	60.7	65.6	64.0
Presence and age of youngest child								
Men								
No children under 18	41.9	41.9	42.2	42.3	72.8	68.6	69.7	69.7
Children 6-17	44.5	43.7	43.9	44.4	84.9	81.0	80.2	82.1
Children 3-5	44.6	43.9	44.1	44.3	84.8	81.4	79.6	83.3
Children under 3	44.4	43.9	44.3	43.6	83.4	79.9	79.7	81.5
Women								
No children under 18	36.7	36.5	37.6	38.0	44.6	47.8	57.2	58.8
Children 6-17	33.1	33.5	35.0	35.6	25.8	33.7	43.3	48.6
Children 3-5	32.0	31.5	33.2	33.4	15.4	23.6	32.8	39.0
Children under 3	30.3	28.9	30.4	30.9	6.7	14.8	25.0	31.8

[1] Children may be biological, adopted, or stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

[2] Data for 1998 are not directly comparable with data for earlier years. For additional information, see household data section of Explanatory Notes in *Employment and Earnings*, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, March supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-6. **Average combined weekly hours at work and average combined annual hours at work for married couples by presence and age of youngest child, March of selected years 1969-98**

Year	All married couples	Presence and age of youngest child[1]			
		No children under 18	Children 6 to 17	Children 3 to 5	Children under 3
Combined weekly hours					
1969	57.5	62.2	56.3	59.6	52.3
1979	66.2	70.5	64.7	66.4	62.2
1989	70.4	74.1	68.7	70.5	66.7
1998	71.8	74.8	70.4	72.2	68.3
Combined annual hours					
1969	2,804.8	3,047.5	2,739.8	2,906.5	2,537.4
1979	3,135.2	3,380.3	3,050.8	3,164.2	2,884.9
1989	3,401.2	3,632.4	3,293.3	3,406.9	3,164.6
1997	3,521.4	3,686.6	3,442.7	3,545.0	3,316.5

[1] Children may be biological, adopted, or stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, March supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-7. **Percent distribution of wives' weekly hours worked by husbands' weekly hours worked, both spouses age 25-54, March of selected years 1969-98**

Wives' hours	Percent					
	Total	Husbands' hours				
		0	1-19	20-34	35-40	41 or more
1969						
Total	100.0	3.9	1.7	5.2	43.2	45.9
0	59.2	2.2	1.1	3.1	25.1	27.7
1-19	5.5	0.2	0.1	0.3	2.3	2.7
20-34	8.7	.3	.1	.7	3.8	3.9
35-40	20.8	1.1	.3	1.0	10.4	8.1
41 or more	5.8	.2	.1	.3	1.6	3.6
1979						
Total	100.0	6.6	1.6	5.3	43.9	42.6
0	44.7	3.4	.8	2.6	19.5	18.4
1-19	7.9	.3	.2	.4	2.9	4.1
20-34	12.8	.7	.1	.8	5.6	5.6
35-40	26.7	1.7	.3	1.2	14.0	9.5
41 or more	7.8	.5	.1	.2	2.0	5.0
1989						
Total	100.0	7.4	1.5	5.3	41.8	44.0
0	31.8	3.1	.5	1.8	12.7	13.8
1-19	7.0	.3	.2	.5	2.5	3.5
20-34	14.7	.9	.2	1.2	5.9	6.5
35-40	33.8	2.3	.4	1.4	17.4	12.2
41 or more	12.7	.8	.2	.4	3.3	7.9
1998						
Total	100.0	6.9	1.9	6.5	38.1	45.6
0	28.2	3.1	.6	1.9	10.1	12.6
1-19	7.3	.4	.3	.7	2.2	3.8
20-34	15.1	.9	.3	1.3	5.5	7.2
35-40	33.1	2.5	.5	1.8	16.4	12.0
41 or more	15.3	.1	.3	.9	4.0	10.1

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-8. **Percent distribution of wives' weekly hours worked by husbands' weekly hours worked, both spouses age 25–54 with children[1] under 6, March of selected years 1969-98**

Wives' hours	Percent					
	Total	Husbands' hours				
		0	1-19	20-34	35-40	41 or more
1969						
Total	100.0	3.4	1.9	5.8	41.4	47.6
0	74.5	2.4	1.4	4.1	31.1	35.5
1-19	5.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	2.1	2.8
20-34	5.7	.2	.1	.7	2.3	2.5
35-40	10.9	.5	.1	.6	4.9	4.7
41 or more	3.5	.1	.1	.1	1.0	2.1
1979						
Total	100.0	5.5	1.4	4.8	43.3	45.1
0	59.4	3.7	.9	2.9	25.5	26.5
1-19	9.6	.2	.2	.4	3.5	5.3
20-34	9.5	.4	.1	.5	4.0	4.4
35-40	17.3	1.0	.2	.8	9.3	6.0
41 or more	4.1	.3	.0	.1	1.0	2.7
1989						
Total	100.0	6.1	1.7	5.3	39.7	47.2
0	43.8	3.3	.8	2.3	16.6	20.8
1-19	8.9	.3	.1	.6	2.8	5.0
20-34	14.4	.6	.2	1.1	5.7	6.8
35-40	25.2	1.3	.4	1.1	12.5	9.9
41 or more	7.7	.6	.1	.2	2.1	4.7
1998						
Total	100.0	6.0	2.2	7.2	37.4	47.2
0	38.8	2.5	1.0	2.9	14.2	18.2
1-19	9.1	.3	.2	.8	2.8	4.9
20-34	15.6	.6	.3	1.4	5.7	7.8
35-40	25.2	1.8	.5	1.4	12.1	9.4
41 or more	11.3	.8	.3	.7	2.6	6.9

[1] Children may be biological, adopted, or stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-9 **Percent of full-time wage and salary workers with flexible schedules on their principal job by marital status, presence and age of youngest child, and sex, May of 1991 and 1997**

Marital status	Total	With no children[1] under age 18	With children[1] under age 18		
			Total	6-17, none younger	Under 6
May 1991					
Total	15.1	15.1	14.9	15.0	14.8
Married, spouse present	14.7	14.5	14.7	14.6	14.9
Other marital status	15.7	15.6	16.2	17.5	13.7
Men	15.5	15.4	15.6	15.8	15.4
Married, spouse present	15.7	15.8	15.8	16.0	15.6
Other marital status	15.0	15.2	11.0	12.1	9.3
Women	14.5	14.8	14.0	14.1	13.7
Married, spouse present	12.9	13.1	12.7	12.2	13.4
Other marital status	16.4	16.1	17.5	18.5	15.0
May 1997					
Total	27.6	26.8	28.9	27.9	30.2
Married, spouse present	28.8	28.3	29.2	28.0	30.7
Other marital status	26.0	25.8	27.4	27.8	26.8
Men	28.7	27.5	30.5	29.7	31.5
Married, spouse present	30.8	30.9	30.7	29.8	31.6
Other marital status	25.2	25.0	28.8	28.0	29.9
Women	26.2	26.0	26.6	25.8	27.8
Married, spouse present	25.6	24.8	26.4	25.1	28.6
Other marital status	24.1	26.8	27.0	27.7	25.6

[1] Children may be biological, adopted, or stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, May supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-10 **Percent of nonagricultural workers who worked at home on their principal job by marital status, presence and age of youngest child, and sex, May of 1991 and 1997**

Marital status	Total	With no children[1] under age 18	With children[1] under age 18		
			Total	6-17, none younger	Under 6
May 1991					
Total	18.3	16.5	21.2	22.0	20.2
Married, spouse present	21.7	21.4	21.9	22.9	20.9
Other marital status	13.1	12.7	15.6	17.1	12.8
Men	18.3	16.3	21.4	22.9	19.8
Married, spouse present	21.7	21.7	21.7	23.2	20.1
Other marital status	12.0	11.9	14.6	17.2	11.0
Women	18.4	16.8	20.9	21.1	20.7
Married, spouse present	21.7	21.0	22.3	22.4	22.1
Other marital status	14.0	13.6	15.9	17.1	13.3
May 1997					
Total	17.7	16.0	20.4	21.0	19.6
Married, spouse present	21.5	21.6	21.5	21.9	21.0
Other marital status	12.3	12.1	13.9	16.3	9.8
Men	17.2	15.4	20.4	22.0	18.7
Married, spouse present	21.0	21.4	20.7	22.1	19.2
Other marital status	11.1	10.8	16.1	20.9	8.6
Women	18.2	16.9	20.3	20.1	20.7
Married, spouse present	22.2	21.7	22.6	21.7	23.8
Other marital status	13.5	13.6	13.3	15.1	10.2

[1] Children may be biological, adopted, or stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, May supplement, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-11. **Ratio of hours worked to hours paid for nonfarm production or nonsupervisory workers, selected industries, 1997**

Industry	Ratio
Nonfarm establishments	0.934
Manufacturing	.917
Lumber and wood products	.940
Primary metals	.916
Fabricated metals	.924
Machinery (except electrical	.917
Electrical equipment	.898
Transportation equipment	.892
Instruments	.905
Food and kindred products	.926
Textile mill products	.939
Apparel and other textiles	.946
Paper and allied products	.901
Printing and publishing	.927
Chemicals	.888
Petroleum and coal products	.896
Nonmanufacturing Industries	.939
Mining	.932
Construction	.971
Transportation	.912
Communications	.882
Electric, gas and sanitary services	.896
Wholesale trade	.923
Retail trade	.959
Finance, insurance and real estate	.930
Services	.932

SOURCE: 1997 Hours at Work Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-12. **Percent of full-time year round workers participating in selected time-off programs by establishment, selected years**

Time-off program	Establishments						
	Private						Government
	Large		All	All	Large	Small	All
	1979	1989	1994-97	1996-97	1997	1996	1994
All workers							
Paid							
Vacation	-	-	76	79	87	72	60
Holidays	-	-	72	73	81	66	68
Sick leave	-	-	50	44	50	40	87
Funeral leave	-	-	56	56	73	42	58
Military leave	-	-	32	27	41	14	69
Jury duty leave	-	-	66	63	79	50	88
Family leave	-	-	2	2	2	2	4
Unpaid							
Family leave	-	-	66	62	87	42	89
Full-time workers							
Paid							
Vacation	100	97	87	91	95	86	66
Holidays	99	97	83	85	89	80	73
Sick leave	56	68	59	53	56	50	93
Funeral leave	-	84	65	66	81	51	62
Military leave	-	53	38	32	47	18	75
Jury duty leave	-	90	76	73	87	59	94
Family leave	-	3	2	2	2	2	4
Unpaid							
Family leave	-	-	73	70	93	48	93
Part-time workers							
Paid							
Vacation	-	-	34	35	44	30	22
Holidays	-	-	29	29	40	24	30
Sick leave	-	-	15	13	18	10	42
Funeral leave	-	-	23	22	34	16	30
Military leave	-	-	9	7	9	5	32
Jury duty leave	-	-	30	28	37	23	51
Family leave	-	-	1	1	1	1	1
Unpaid							
Family leave	-	-	37	35	54	25	62

NOTE: Dash indicates less than 0.5 percent.

SOURCE: Employee Benefits Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-13. **Average paid leave days available to full-time year round workers by establishment, selected years**

Time-off program	Establishments					
	Private					Government
	Large	All		Large	Small	All
	1989	1994-96	1995-96	1995	1996	1994
All full-time workers						
Paid						
Vacation after—						
1 year	9.1	9.2	8.8	9.6	8.1	12.3
10 years	16.5	15.7	15.3	16.9	13.9	18.3
20 years	20.4	18.3	17.8	20.4	15.4	21.9
Holidays	9.2	8.7	8.3	9.1	7.6	11.5
Funeral leave	-	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.7
Personal leave	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.0

NOTE: Dash indicates less than 0.5 percent.

SOURCE: Employee Benefits Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-14. **Percent of workers age 31–39 eligible for benefits at their current job by selected characteristics, 1996**

Characteristic	Paid leave		Maternity/ paternity leave
	Vacation	Sick	
Total	77.5	63.6	65.8
Men	80.1	62.0	58.4
Women	74.5	65.5	74.2
Race and Hispanic origin			
White	77.2	62.9	66.0
Black	78.1	65.6	64.5
Hispanic	80.5	67.2	65.3
Education			
Less than a high school diploma	66.2	41.2	44.3
High school diploma	77.2	55.6	62.9
Some college	78.3	69.9	70.9
College degree or higher	82.2	81.5	75.1
Industry			
Mining	-	-	-
Construction	49.8	30.3	31.4
Manufacturing	91.5	57.9	73.0
Transportation, communication, and public utilities	84.4	74.9	71.7
Wholesale trade	87.5	66.2	61.9
Retail trade	70.2	47.9	56.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate	83.3	81.6	74.5
Services	73.3	69.0	67.0
Public administration	91.6	92.7	84.3
Occupation			
Professional, technical, kindred	81.1	79.6	78.8
Manager, officials, proprietors	86.6	77.9	71.0
Sales workers	74.9	61.0	63.1
Clerical and kindred	81.8	70.9	73.6
Craftsman, foreman, kindred	75.5	47.3	50.0
Operatives and kindred	80.8	46.9	60.2
Laborers	63.6	44.6	49.0
Service workers	62.4	51.1	58.2
Hours			
Part-time [1]	40.2	34.6	45.5
Full-time [2]	84.6	69.5	70.5
Years of tenure			
Less than 1	59.3	47.8	47.8
1-2	74.0	58.8	60.7
3-5	80.9	67.7	68.9
6-9	6.4	74.1	77.0
10 or more	91.7	74.1	78.2
Class of worker			
Government	83.2	90.2	83.2
Private for profit	77.7	58.1	63.0
Private non-profit	77.5	77.0	71.0

[1] Less than 35 hours per week.
[2] 35 or more hours per week.

NOTE: Dash indicates data not available.

SOURCE: National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-15. **Number of paid vacation and sick leave days entitled to workers age 31–39 at their current job by selected characteristics, 1996**

Characteristic	Paid leave	
	Vacation	Sick
Total	13.2	9.8
Men	13.5	9.7
Women	12.9	10.0
Race and Hispanic origin		
White	13.3	9.7
Black	12.8	10.2
Hispanic	12.9	9.9
Education		
Less than a high school diploma…	10.7	8.8
High school diploma	12.5	9.5
Some college	13.2	9.5
College degree or higher	15.5	10.9
Industry		
Mining	-	-
Construction	9.7	8.5
Manufacturing	12.7	7.9
Transportation, communication, and public utilities	13.6	11.0
Wholesale trade	11.2	7.2
Retail trade	11.1	9.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate	14.0	9.5
Services	13.8	10.0
Public administration	17.2	13.2
Occupation		
Professional, technical, kindred	15.3	10.7
Manager, officials, proprietors	14.0	9.9
Sales workers	12.9	9.4
Clerical and kindred	12.9	9.8
Craftsman, foreman, kindred	11.9	8.7
Operatives and kindred	11.4	7.7
Laborers	12.1	9.9
Service workers	12.3	10.9
Hours		
Part-time[1]	10.5	9.4
Full-time[2]	13.5	9.8
Years of tenure		
Less than 1	9.2	8.0
1-2	10.5	8.5
3-5	12.9	9.8
6-9	15.2	11.2
10 or more	17.2	11.3
Class of worker		
Government	17.3	12.5
Private for profit	12.4	8.8
Private non-profit	14.8	11.0

[1] Less than 35 hours per week.
[2] 35 or more hours per week.

NOTE: Dash indicates data not available.

SOURCE: National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 3-16. **Average weekly hours persons age 18-64 spent in selected family-care activities by employment status and sex, selected years 1965-65**

Family-care activity	1965	1975	1985	Change in hours 1965-85
Total family care	27.3	23.6	24.0	-3.3
Women	40.2	32.9	30.9	-9.3
Employed	26.1	23.7	25.6	-0.5
Nonemployed	51.5	42.0	39.0	-12.5
Men	11.5	12.2	15.7	4.2
Employed	11.1	10.7	14.5	3.4
Nonemployed	15.2	16.1	20.3	5.1
Core housework				
Women	26.9	21.3	18.7	-8.2
Employed	17.9	15.2	15.3	-2.6
Nonemployed	34.2	27.5	23.8	-10.4
Men	4.7	6.5	9.4	4.7
Employed	4.4	5.8	8.4	.4
Nonemployed	8.3	10.2	13.2	4.9
Child care				
Women	6.4	5.1	4.9	-1.5
Employed	2.7	3.2	3.6	.9
Nonemployed	9.3	6.8	7.0	-2.3
Men	1.7	1.6	1.4	-.3
Employed	1.8	1.7	1.6	-.2
Nonemployed	1.2	1.5	1.0	-.2
Shopping				
Women	7.0	6.5	7.3	.3
Employed	5.7	5.3	6.7	1.0
Nonemployed	7.9	7.7	8.2	.3
Men	5.1	4.2	4.9	-.2
Employed	4.9	4.2	4.5	-.4
Nonemployed	5.7	4.4	6.1	.4

SOURCE: John P. Robinson and Geoffrey Godbey, *Time for Life: The Surprising Ways Americans Use Their Time*, Pennsylvania State University Press, 1997

Table 3-17. **Change in average weekly hours persons age 18-64 spent in free-time activities by employment status and sex, 1965-85**

Employment status	Total	TV viewing	Reading	Radio/ recordings
Total	4.8	4.7	-0.8	-0.2
Women	4.9	5.2	-.3	-.2
Employed	6.8	4.8	-.1	-.4
Nonemployed	7.0	7.2	-.2	.2
Men	4.7	3.9	-1.4	-.2
Employed	3.3	3.1	-1.6	-.3
Nonemployed	-5.5	4.7	-1.0	.2

SOURCE: John P. Robinson and Geoffrey Godbey, *Time for Life: The Surprising Ways Americans Use Their Time*, Pennsylvania State University Press, 1997

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Endnotes

[1] "The Busyness Trap," by Barbara Moses, *Training Magazine*, November 1998.

[2] The CPS is a monthly survey of about 50,000 households, conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For additional information about the Survey, see the "Explanatory Notes and Estimates of Errors," in *Employment and Earnings*, May 1999.

[3] Leete and Schor examine the changes between 1969 and 1989. A fully-employed person was defined as someone who worked full-time year round and did not report that additional work was desired but not available.

[4] See chapter 2, p. 62 of the 1995 *Report on the American Workforce*, U.S. Department of Labor, for a discussion of the rise in female-headed families. See also Hayghe, 1997.

[5] Much of the discussion of chart 3-1 follows that of Abraham, Spletzer, and Stewart, 1998.

[6] See Abraham, Spletzer, and Stewart, 1998.

[7] The implicit assumption is that workers, on average, error on the side of over rather than underreporting their hours.

[8] The 1994 redesign represents the most serious break in these series.

[9] The CPS relies on the accuracy and completeness of respondents'—or proxy respondents'—recall about hours worked during the reference week. Proxy respondents particularly may not have full knowledge of the actual work hours of other household members. Consequently, small amounts of leave taken during the reference week or changes in work schedules may be ignored and some commuting time may be inadvertently included. If these types of reporting errors have increased over time then this reduces the consistency of the series although the actual wording of the question has not changed.

[10] Published data on annual average weekly hours worked are only available from 1976 forward for these subpopulations.

[11] These data represent hours worked per week during the reporting week in March; they do not represent the average over all reporting weeks during the year.

[12] See Hayghe, 1997, p. 42.

[13] Part of the reason that we don't observe a sizable decline in average hours worked for men age 45-64 is because the decline in participation rates was more heavily concentrated among those age 55-64. Furthermore, the size of the 45- to 54-year-old group grew relative to the size of the 55- to 54-year old group, so that changes for the younger group tend to predominate when both age groups are considered together. (In 1976, there were 11,243,000 men age 45-54, compared with 9,444,000 age 55-64. In 1998, these numbers were 16,773,000 and 10,649,000, respectively).

[14] Hecker, 1998, found that the proportion of workers who work extended workweeks varies considerably by occupation with executives, officials, and managers being the most likely to have extended workweeks.

[15] The 1994 redesign of the CPS changed the question on educational attainment so that the 1998 numbers are not strictly comparable to previous years. See Frazis, Ports, and Stewart, 1995, for a comparison of the new and old CPS education questions.

[16] Freeman, 1998, finds a similar pattern using data on changes in annual hours worked from the 1970 and 1990 Census of Population public use files.

[17] Children are defined as "own" children and include sons, daughters, adopted, and stepchildren. Not included are nieces, nephews, grandchildren, other related children, and unrelated children.

[18] For this analysis, we examine the trends in usual weekly hours worked during the last year rather than hours worked during the reference week in March. Annual hours are calculated by multiplying usual hours worked per week by weeks worked in the last year. Note that the usual weekly hours question was not asked in 1969 so the variable for hours worked during the reference week was used instead with weekly hours being imputed for those who said they usually worked full time but were not at work that week.

[19] Some of the rise in 1998 is likely due to the CPS redesign.

[20] The FMLA excludes any employee who is employed at a worksite at which the employer employs fewer than 50 employees or if the total number of employees employed by that employer within 75 miles of that worksite is also fewer than 50.

[21] Nelson, Richard R., "State Labor Legislation Enacted in 1988," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1989, vol. 112(1), p. 41.

[22] Nelson, Richard R., "State Labor Legislation Enacted in 1990," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1991, vol. 114(1), p. 41.

[23] Nelson, Richard R., "State Labor Legislation Enacted in 1994," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1995, vol. 118(1), p. 41.

[24] Nelson, Richard R., "State Labor Legislation Enacted in 1997," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1998, vol. 120(1), p. 4.

[25] McCampbell, Atefah Sadri, "Benefits Achieved Through Alternative Work Schedules," *Human Resource Planning*, 1996, vol. 19, p. 3.

[26] See Elizabeth Sheley, "Work Options Beyond 9 to 5," *HRMagazine*, February 1996.

[27] See Genevieve Capowski, "The Joys of Flex," *American Management Association*, March 1996.

[28] The source of the data used here is the CPS May 1997 supplement.

[29] Employee Benefits Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletins 2475, 2477, 2496, 1994-1995. This is an establishment-based survey that asks employers questions about the formal kinds of benefits they offer their employees, and what proportion of their employees are eligible for these benefits. The data from the CPS, in comparison, are based on a question that asks individual workers whether they are able to vary their beginning and ending hours on the job. This can be done either through formal arrangements specified in workers' contracts or union contracts, or through an informal agreement between worker and employer.

[30] Forthcoming article in the *Monthly Labor Review*, by Thomas Beers.

[31] "Flexiplace" is a term used to describe an arrangement with an employer whereby the employee can perform work somewhere other than at the employer's place of business or job site. Flexiplace arrangements may involve the use of electronic equipment such as personal computers or fax machines, and may require the worker to report periodically to the employer's place of business for assignments or reviews.

[32] For an example of leave benefits available to workers in the construction industry, see *Jacksonville, FL Wages and Benefits in the Construction Industry*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 2510-1, October 1998.

[33] Brooks Pierce, "Compensation Inequality," unpublished, Bureau of Labor Statistics, September 1998.

[34] National time-use studies were conducted in 1965-66, 1975-76, and 1981 by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. The Survey Research Center at the University of Maryland conducted studies in 1985 and 1992-94. This latter survey was sponsored by the Environmental Protection Agency.